LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

Vol. II.

MON-KHMER AND SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILIES

(INCLUDING KHASSI AND TAI).

COMPILED AND EDITED BY

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Subject to subsequent revision, the following is the proposed list of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India.

- Vol. I. Introductory.
 - " II. Mön-Khmer and Tai families.
 - " III. Part I. Tibeto-Burman languages of Tibet and North Assam.
 - II. Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
 - " III. Kuki-Chin and Burma groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
 - " IV. Dravido-Munda languages.
 - ,, V. Indo-Aryan languages, Eastern group.
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- " VII. Indo-Aryan languages, Southern group (Marāṭhī).
- " VIII. Indo-Aryan languages, North-Western group (Sindhī, Lahndā, Kashmīrī, and the 'Non-Sanskritic' languages).
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 - Part J. Western Hindī and Panjābī.
 - , II. Rājasthānī and Gujarātī.
 - " III. Himalayan languages.
- " X. Eranian family.
- " XI. "Gipsy" languages and supplement.

PREFACE.

THE present volume deals with those languages of the Mōn-Khmēr and Tai families which fall within the limits of this Survey. The Mōn-Khmēr are the oldest, and the Tai are the latest, of the Indo-Chinese immigrants into India. If we arranged these languages chronologically, the Tai ones should come after the Tibeto-Burman Family. It has, however, been found convenient to put these two short sections together into one volume.

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THE MON-KHMER FAMILY.

The languages of this family are nearly all spoken in Further India, and thus do not fall within the limits of the present Survey. The home of one important member, Khassi, is, however, in Assam, and hence a brief general description of the family is necessary.

Linguistic evidence points to the conclusion that some form of Mōn-Khmēr speech was once the language of the whole of Further India.¹ Incursions, from the north, of tribes speaking Tibeto-Burman languages, and in later times, from Western China, of members of the Tai race, have driven most of the Mōn-Khmēr speakers to the sea-coast; so that, with a few exceptions, all the languages of this family are now found in Pegu, Cambodia and Anam. The exceptions are some tribes who still hold the hill country of the lower and middle Me-kong and of the middle Chindwin, and the Khassis, all of whom are islands of Mōn-Khmēr origin, standing out amidst seas of alien peoples.

The languages of the Mōn-Khmēr family fall naturally into five groups. The first group includes a number of closely related forms of speech used by the inhabitants of the hill country of the lower and middle Me-kong. The second includes the Mōn or Talaing spoken in Pegu, the Anamese of Anam, and a number of minor dialects (including Stieng and Bahnar) spoken in the latter country. The third group consists of the various dialects of the Khmēr spoken in Cambodia. The fourth, or Palaung-Wa, group, includes the Palaung spoken north-east of Mandalay, the language of the Was, and a number of other dialects spoken in the hilly country round the upper middle courses of the Chindwin and the Me-kong. Amongst them may be mentioned Kha-mūk or Khmu, Le-met, and Riang. The fifth group consists of the various dialects of the Khassi language. In order to show the connexion between Khassi and the other languages of the family, I have added to the list of words of the Khassi dialects a further list showing the corresponding Mōn-Khmēr words so far as I have been able to collect them.

The points of resemblance between the Mön-Khmër vocabularies and those, on the one hand, of the Mundā languages of Central India, and, on the other hand, of the Nancowry language of the Nicobars and the dialects of the early inhabitants of Malacca,² have often been pointed out. They are so remarkable and of such frequent occurrence, that a connexion between all these tongues cannot be doubted, and must be considered as finally established by the labours of Professor Kuhn. At the same time the structures of the two sets of languages differ in important particulars. The Mön-Khmër languages are monosyllabic. Every word consists of a single syllable. When, in Khassi for instance, we meet an apparent dissyllable we find on examination that it is really a compound word. On the other hand, the Mundā, Nancowry, and Malacca languages contain many undoubted polysyllables. This is a very important point of difference, for one of the marks by which languages are classified is the fact that they are monosyllabic or polysyllabic. Again, if we take the order of words in the Mundā languages and compare it with that of Khassi and Mōn, we find another important distinction. The Mundā order is subject, object, verb, while in Khassi and Mōn it is subject, verb, object. The order of

¹ It is not intended to suggest that its speakers were the autochthones of this region. They probably immigrated from North-Western China, and dispossessed the aborigines, as they, in turn, were dispossessed by the Tibeto-Burmans and the Tais.

^{*} These are the language of the so-called Orang Utan, or Men of the Woods, Sakei, Semang, Orang Benua, and others.

words in a sentence follows the order of thought of the speaker, so that it follows that the Mundas think in an order of ideas different from that of the Khassis and the Mons.

Owing to the existence of these differences we should not be justified in assuming a common origin for the Mon-Khmer languages on the one hand, and for the Munda, Nancowry, and Malacca languages, on the other. We may, however, safely assume that there is at the bottom of all these tongues1 a common substratum, over which there have settled layers of the speeches of other peoples, differing in different localities. Nevertheless, this substratum was firmly enough established to prevent its being entirely hidden by them, and frequent, undeniable, traces of it are still discernible in languages spoken in widely distant tracts of Nearer and Further India.

Of what language this original substratum consisted, we are not yet in a position to Whatever it was, it covered a wide area, larger than the area covered by many families of languages in India at the present day. Languages with this common substratum are now spoken not only in the modern Province of Assam, in Burma, Siam, Cambodia and Anam, but also over the whole of Central India as far west as the Berars. It is a far cry from Cochin China to Nimar, and yet, even at the present day, the coincidences between the language of the Körküs of the latter District and the Anamese of Cochin China are strikingly obvious to any student of language who turns his attention to them. Still further food for reflection is given by the undoubted fact that, on the other side, the Munda languages show clear traces of connexion with the speeches of the aborigines of Australia.

This ancient substratum may have been the parent of the present Munda languages, or it may have been the parent of the present Mon-Khmer languages. It cannot have been the parent of both, but it is possible that it was the parent of neither. Logan, writing in the early fifties, believed that it is the Mon-Khmer family of which it was the parent, and that the speakers were a mixture of two distinct races, i.e., that Eastern Tibetans, or Western Chinese, came across the Himalaya, and mingled with the Australo-Dravidians of India proper, who are now looked upon as the aborigines of India. Forbes, in his Comparative Grammar, avoids the question, and contents himself with proving, what is now not a matter of doubt, that the Mundā and Mon-Khmer families had no common parentage. Kuhn is more cautious than Logan. He proves the existence of the common substratum, but does not venture to state to what family of languages it belonged. Thomsen does not deal with the question directly, but it may be gathered from the paper quoted below that his opinion is that most probably the substratum is a Mundā one, and that a population akin to the Indian Munda races originally extended as far east as Further India. This was before the beginnings of those invasions from the north which resulted, first, in the Mon-Khmer, and, afterwards, in the Tibeto-Burman and Tai settlements in that region.

AUTHORITIES-

The following writings deal with the general question of the Mon-Khmer races and languages:-

LOGAN, J. R.—The series of papers on the Ethnology of the Indo-Pacific Islands, which appeared in the Journal of the Indian Archipelago, may all be studied with advantage, though much has been superseded by later inquiries. Special attention is drawn to the paper on the General Characters of the Burma-Tibetan, Gangetic and Dravirian Languages, on pp. 186 and ff. of Vol. vii (1853),

¹² So Kuhn in the Beiträge quoted below,

- FORBES, C. J. F. S.—Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India, A Fragment. London, 1881.
- Kuhn, E.—*Ueber Herkunft und Sprache der transgangetischen Völker*. Festrede zur Vorfeier des allerhöchsten Geburts-und Namensfestes Seiner Majestät des Königs Ludwig II. Munich, 1883.
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- THOMSEN, VILH.—Bemærkninger om de khervariske (kolariske) Sprogs Stilling. Særtryk af Oversigt over d. Kgl. Danske Vidensk. Selskabs Forhandl. 1892. Copenhagen, 1892
- STEVENS, HEOLF VAUGHAN, AND GRÜNWEDEL, ALBERT.—Materialen zur Kenntniss der wilden Stämme auf der Halbinsel Maldka, von H.V.S., herausgegeben von A. G. II. Theil. In Veröffentlichen aus dem königlichen Museum für Völkerkunde, iii, 3-4 Heft. Berlin, 1894. Comparisons with Khassi on pp. 100, 109, 117, and 190.
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- Schmidt, P. W., S.V.D.—Die Sprachen der Sakei und Semang auf Malacca und ihr Verhältniss zu den Mon-khmēr-Sprachen. Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Ned.-Indië, 6° Volgr., Deel viii, pp. 401 and ff. 's Gravenhage, 1901.

KHASSI.

The connexion of Khassi with the other languages of the Mon-Khmer family was recognised so long ago as the year 1853, when Logan, in his paper on the General Characters of the Burma-Tibetan, Gangetic and Dravirian Languages, spoke of it as a solitary record that the Mon-Kambojan formation once extended much further to the North-West than it now does. This statement of opinion seems to have escaped the notice of subsequent students of the language, for though a few scholars have once and again referred to the connexion with Mon-Khmer, the usually accepted account of Khassi has been that it is an entirely isolated member of the Indo-Chinese languages. It was not till 1889, forty years after Robinson published the first Khassi Grammar, that Professor E. Kuhn, in his masterly Beiträge zur Sprachenkunde Hinterindiens, first seriously attacked the question, and showed conclusively the true affinity of this interesting form of speech.

The home of Khassi is the district of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, the head-quarters of which are Shillong, the seat of Government in Assam. Speakers of it are also found in the adjoining districts of Sylhet and Cachar. The standard dialect is that spoken round Cherrapunji in the South Khasi Hills. It will be dealt with at length further on. Besides this three other dialects have been reported for this Survey, viz., (1) the Lyngngam, or the language of the south-western corner of the hills, bordering on the Garo Hills; (2) the Synteng or Pnār, or the language of the upper portions of the Jowai subdivision, east of Shillong; and (3) the Wār, or dialect of the low Southern valleys, opening out on to the plains of Sylhet.

Specimens of these three have, it is believed, never before been printed, and those now given afford the only materials for exhibiting their differences from the standard and peculiarities of grammatical structure. Synteng approaches the standard dialect much more nearly than the others.

The following figures have been reported as the estimated number of speakers of each dialect:—

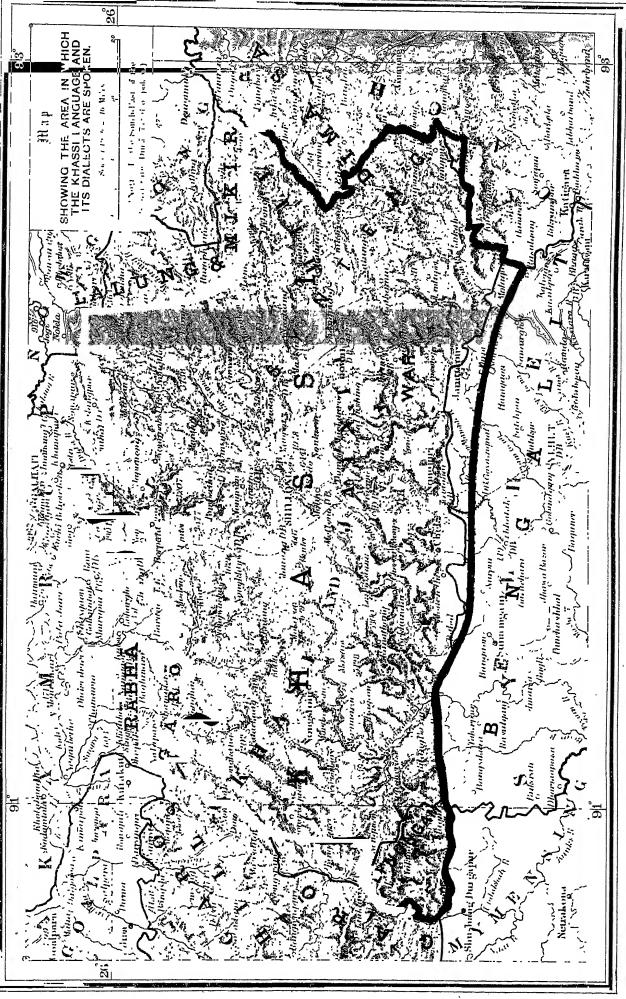
(ALORDOO 4				
Dialect.	Where sp	oken,		Number of speakers.
Standard	Khasi and Jar	ntia Hills		113,190
Lyng-ngam	${f Ditto}$			1,850
Synteng or Pnär	Ditto			51,740
Wār	Ditto			7,000
TI-serve God	(Sylhet	3,200		
Unspecified	Sylhet Cachar	313		
				3,513
			TOTAL	. 177,293

The interest attaching to the Khassi language is due chiefly to the isolated position which it occupies among the aboriginal tongues of India, and especially among the Tibeto-Burman group which encloses it. This isolation, it may be added, is equally

¹ Quoted as an authority in the Introduction to the Family.

² So Schott, as quoted below, p. 427; Cust, The Modern Languages of the East Indies, p. 117; and Roberts, Khassi Grammar, p. xvii.

^{*} For the following account of the Khassi language, I am indebted to the kindness of Sir Charles J. Lyall, K.C.S.I., who has not only written the introductory remarks and the grammatical sketch which follow, but has also revised the specimens and given me invaluable advice and assistance in preparing them for the press.



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KHASSI. 5

conspicuous in the social institutions of the Khassi race, and in the physical characteristics of the individuals who compose it. While the general type, both of speech and physical frame, is undoubtedly Mongolian, the morphological character of the language differs too much from that of other forms of speech found within the Indian boundaries, to admit of its being classed with any one of them.

The following are the principal points of difference between the Khassi family and the other non-Aryan languages of India:—

- (1) It possesses a complete system of gender. To every substantive in the dialects which together form the language is ascribed a masculine or a feminine quality, irrespective of its representing an object actually having sex; and this distinction of gender is carried, by means of the determining prefix, through the adjectives and verbal forms which, together with the substantive, build up the sentence.
- (2) As in other non-Aryan languages of India, grammatical relations are denoted by position, or, more often, by the use of help-words with more or less attenuated meanings. But the important point of difference is that in the Khassi dialects these help-words are invariably prefixes, that is, they stand before the word they modify. On the other hand, the Dravidian, Mundā, and Tibeto-Burman forms of speech prefer suffixes, that is, the help-words follow the words they modify. The other Mon-Khmer languages follow the same system as the Khassi, while the Tai family uses both systems. The possessor is placed after the thing possessed in the Khassi, the Tai, and the other Mon-Khmer languages, but before it in the other languages named. The result of this peculiarity is that the order of the words in a Khassi sentence is altogether different from that which prevails in the Tibeto-Burman family, its neighbour on three sides; and, as the order of words corresponds to the order of ideas, the speakers of Khassi are thus differentiated in a very important respect.
- (3) The possession of a relative pronoun distinguishes the Khassi dialects from most of the non-Aryan languages of India, a peculiarity which it shares with the Cambodian and Anamese languages (as well as with those of the Tai family), but not with Mon.

VOCABULARY.—The greater part of the words used in Khassi appear to be native to that tongue, though there may have been borrowings and interchanges with its Tibeto-Burman neighbours.¹ The two test-words, for water and fire, and the numerals, which run through the whole of the Tibeto-Burman family with only dialectic variations, have no representatives of the same type in Khassi. Many words have been borrowed from Bengali, Hindōstānī and English, being required to express ideas and instruments of civilization and culture acquired from outside; but the language has considerable power of abstraction, and has proved adequate to the expression of very complex relations of thought.

It has received much cultivation during the past half-century, entirely through the agency of the Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Mission, settled in the Khasi Hills since 1842, with its head-quarters first at Cherrapunji, and afterwards at the provincial capital of

¹ Mikir or Arleng, the nearest Tibeto-Burman neighbour of Khassi on the East, has a fairly large number of roots identical with Khassi; it is not possible at present to say which has borrowed from the other.

Shillong; and, besides translations of the Scriptures, a considerable number of books have been published in it. The standard dialect is considered to be that of Cherrapunji and its neighbourhood, where the first efforts to give the language a literary form were made; and the education imparted by the missionaries, who have now occupied with their schools every part of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, has contributed to spread the use of that dialect throughout the Khasi-speaking area. Khasi is the official language of the courts, and is recognised by the Calcutta University, students from the Hills offering themselves for matriculation being examined in it as a second language in addition to English.

The best account of it is contained in the Grammar by the Rev. H. Roberts; but, as the list below shows, there are many works from which a knowledge of it can be gained.

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AVERY, J.—On the Khasi Language. Proceedings of the American Oriental Society for 1883, pp. elxxiii and ff. In Vol. xi (1885) of the Journal of the Society.

Stephens, C. L.—Khasi Primer. Khadrawphrah (Khasi Hills), 1895.

Solomon, U-Job.—The Reader's Companion, being an easy guide how to speak and write Khasi.
Shillong, 1895.

SKELETON KHASSI GRAMMAR.

PRONUNCIATION.—The language has been provided with a written character—the Roman—by the Missionaries, who have used a system for expressing sounds partly derived from their own Welsh. Thus words in Khassi as written do not agree with the scheme of representation adopted elsewhere in this Survey. According to the established system the following vowels have sounds not represented elsewhere by the same means:—

- a is not the Aryan a, but the Aryan \tilde{a} somewhat shortened, as in Bengali and Assamese (German a in Mann).
- e short and \bar{e} long both occur.
- o represents the abrupt o in 'gone,' 'pot'; ō, the sound in 'bone'.

y is used for the obscure vowel, not exactly the short a of Aryan, but something between it and the German \ddot{o} or the French eu, but shorter than these. Very rarely it is long, and then=the French eu in 'heure.' Y is never used as a consonant, its place being taken by the vowel i, as ia=ya.

w is used in diphthongs for vocal u; elsewhere it is a consonant.

Diphthongs—ai, $\bar{a}i$, as in Aryan; aw = Aryan au; $\bar{a}w = \text{Aryan } \bar{a}u$; $ei = \text{not exactly } \text{Aryan } \bar{e}$, but with the *i*-sound distinctly audible; $ew = \text{Aryan } \bar{e}u$; $\bar{i}w = \text{Aryan } \bar{i}u$, but pronounced together so as to make one syllable; oi as in 'boil'; ui, $\bar{u}i$, each sound separately heard, but as one syllable.

Diacritical marks of length are seldom used in writing, and the long vowel $\bar{\imath}$ is sometimes expressed by doubling, ii, e.g., sim, bird; siim (sim), chief: ding, fire; diing, tree. Occasionally the diæresis is used to denote long $\bar{\imath}$, thus, $\bar{\imath}$. Ie is also used for a sound hardly distinguishable from long $\bar{\imath}$.

Aspirated Consonants.—Bh, kh, dh, jh, ph, th, ngh, as in Aryan; only one d and t (not two, dental and cerebral) are used, as in English; sh as in 'shun.' The language does not contain the sounds of f (except as a dialectic form of ph), g (except in foreign words), ch or z (except in the Lyng-ngam and Wär dialects).

Ng is frequent as an initial, and after initial s, as sngi, sngem, $sng\bar{u}r$. The g is never heard separately.

Tones.—Khassi possesses tones, like the other languages of the Mōn-Khmēr family, Tai, and Chinese. The accurate representation of these in writing has not yet been consistently provided for, though they are distinctly differentiated to the ear. One tone, however, the abrupt, is expressed by the use of h after the vowel; e.g., la, the particle for the past tense; lah, the particle of potentiality. Wherever h follows a vowel, this is to be understood to be its force.

Aphæresis.—Khassi abounds in initial consonants (not, however, exceeding two³); but the effect of abrasion produced by rapid utterance is to reduce these compounds by the omission of the first; blang, goat; 'lang-brot, kid: shnong, village; 'nong-kseh, village of the pine-trees: brīw, man; soh-'rīw, a tall kind of millet: ksah, ring; kti, hand; 'sah-'ti, finger-ring.

GENERAL STRUCTURE.—The elements of the Khassi vocabulary are monosyllabic, and the language, as the specimens show, is still distinctly monosyllabic in character, each syllable, for the most part, having its definite and proper force. But there are certain syllables—in the Standard Khassi all prefixes—which have lost their separate individuality, and are used to form compound roots. These have almost invariably the weakest vowel, y, which they tend to lose and to coalesce with the following consonant. Thus $khym\bar{\imath}h$, $khm\bar{\imath}h$; kypa, kpa; $kym\bar{\imath}$, $km\bar{\imath}$. The compounds thus formed tend to aphæretise the first element, and we have pa, $m\bar{\imath}(mei)$ as the residuum. In verbs these syllables (pyn-,pyr-,kyr-,kyr-,kyr-,syr-,etc.) play a considerable part in producing secondary roots. Compound roots, in which each element retains its force and is distinctly

Khassi shoh, beat, with the Mikir chok. The abrupt tone is due to the disappearance of this consonant,

3 Aspirated consonants, ng, and sh, are here treated as single letters,

¹ Y combined with r, as in the prefixes kyr-, syr-, tyr-, etc., appears to represent very accurately the vocal r of the old Aryan alphabet, still retained in some of the Slavonic languages. It is most frequently in contact with the liquids, l, m, n, r.

² In a large number of cases the h represents a lost consonant, usually k. Thus barch, all, is in Lyng-ngam prok; bhah (Synteng), share, stands for bhah (Bengali bhāg). Compare also the Khassi (ky)poh, belly, with the Mikir pok, and the

felt in the common idea, are extremely numerous, and add greatly to the power of the language as the means of expression. Thus kyn, causal prefix, $m\bar{a}w$, stone; kyn- $m\bar{a}w$, mark with a stone as memorial, remember: $khm\bar{\imath}h$, look at, watch, lynti, road; $khm\bar{\imath}h$ -lynti, expect, await: sngow, feel, $bh\bar{a}$, good; sngow- $bh\bar{a}$, be pleased.

ARTICLE.—The pronoun of the third person is commonly described as an article. Its forms are, singular, mase. u, fem. ka, diminutive or familiar, i; plural (com. gen.) ki. One of these must precede every noun. It has not, however, the force of our article, either definite or indefinite, but only indicates the gender and number of the associated noun. The 'article' is omitted in idiomatic sentences when no ambiguity is caused by the omission.

NOUNS.—Gender is indicated in the singular by the 'article', in the plural, where necessary, by words denoting sex. The great majority of inanimate nouns are feminine; all abstracts (formed either by the prefix *jing*, or the adjective with or without ba) are feminine. The sun, day, is feminine, ka sngi; the moon, month, is masculine, u bynai. Sometimes the word varies in meaning according to the gender: u ngap, bee; ka ngap, honey. Diminutives are formed by the prefix i: u brīw, a man; i brīw, a dwarf: ka īng, a house; i īng, a hut.

Number is indicated only by the article. Case is indicated by prefixes. Thus:—

Case.	Singular.		Plural.
Nominative .	u brīw, a man	•	ki brīw, men.
Accusative .	ia u brīw, a man	•	ia ki brīw, men.
Instrumental .	da u brīw, by a man		da ki brīw, by men.
Dative	ha, sha, or ia u brīw, to or for a man.	•	ha, sha, or ia hi brīw, to or for men.
Ablative	na u brīw, from a man	•	na ki brīw, from men.
Genitive	jong u brīw, of a man		jong ki brīw, of men.
Locative	ha u brīw, in a man	•	ha ki brīw, in men.

N.B.—The prefix of the Accusative (ia) and of the Genitive (jong) are often omitted, the position of the word indicating the case.

ADJECTIVES.—All are formed by prefixing ba (the particle of relativity or purpose) to the root. Thus, $bh\bar{a}$, goodness; ba- $bh\bar{a}$, good: $sn\bar{\imath}w$, badness; ba- $sn\bar{\imath}w$, bad. Often ba- is dropped and the root joined immediately to the noun, but in this case there is generally some difference of meaning, and the word has become properly a permanent compound noun. Thus, u $br\bar{\imath}w$ $babh\bar{a}$, a good man: u $r\bar{\imath}w$ - $bh\bar{a}$, a rich man. The 'article' may be repeated before the adjective or omitted at pleasure, u $br\bar{\imath}w$ u $bast\bar{a}d$ or u $br\bar{\imath}w$ $bast\bar{a}d$, a wise man.

The adjective always follows the noun.

Comparison is effected by inserting kham between ba and the root for the comparative, and by adding tam to the positive, either with or without kham, for the superlative:—ba-eh, hard; ba-kham-eh, harder; ba-eh-tam, ba-kham-eh-tam, hardest.

Numerals.—The forms are given in the list of words. Here it is to be observed (1) that in Khassi the cardinal number always precedes the noun (e.g., ār-ngut, two persons: lāi-lyngkhot, three pieces), whereas in Tibeto-Burman it follows it; (2) that in Khassi there is no trace of the class-determinatives used in Tibeto-Burman and Tai with numerals when applied to different groups of things.

PRONOUNS.—The **Personal Pronouns** are $ng\bar{a}$, I; ngi, we (both of common gender); $m\bar{e}$ (masc.), $ph\bar{a}$ (fem.), thou; phi (com. gen.), ye; u (masc.), ka (fem.), he, she, it; ki (com. gen.), they. All are declined as nouns. Ma- prefixed emphasises the pronoun; $ng\bar{a}$ la ong, ma- $ng\bar{a}$ =I said, even I. Observe (1) that in these plurals alone are found in Khassi traces of inflexion, and (2) that in the second and third persons the common plural is formed from the *feminine* singular. The feminine is also used where we should use the neuter, as in impersonal verbs: ka dei, it is necessary; ka la slap, it rained; ka-ne, this; ka-ta, that, of sexless things.

The pronouns of the third person are converted into **Demonstratives** by the addition of particles denoting the position of things with reference to the speaker. These suffixes are:—(1) near=this, ne (u-ne, ka-ne, i-ne, ki-ne); (2) in sight, but further off=that, to (u-to, etc.); (3) further off, but still visible=that, tai (u-tai, etc.); (4) out of sight, or only contemplated in the mind=that, ta (u-ta, etc.). After these, the 'article' must be repeated before the noun: this man=u-ne u briw.

The **Relative Pronoun** is, in the same way, the personal pronoun of the third person followed by the adjective or relative particle ba-u-ba, ka-ba, i-ba, ki-ba. E.g., 'there was a man who had two sons' $= la-don\ u-wei\ u-brīw\ u-ba\ la-don\ \bar{a}r-ngut\ ki-kh\bar{u}n$ shinrang. Ba is sometimes used as a relative without the 'article.'

The Interrogative Pronoun is the 'article' followed by no or ei, (u-no, ka-no, ki-no, who? which? u-ei, ka-ei, ki-ei, id.). Ei is often used without the 'article'; and -no (which is restricted to persons), when declined, regularly drops the 'article', e.g., jong-no, whose? ia-no, whom? sha-no, to whom? What? neuter, is aiuh, and also ka-ei.

The Reflexive Pronoun, referring to the subject of the sentence, is la, for all persons.

VERBS.—The verbal root (which never varies) may be simple or compound. The compound roots are (1) Causals, formed by prefixing pyn to the simple root; iap, die; pyn-iap, kill: (2) Frequentatives, formed by prefixing iai; iām, weep; iai-iām, weep continually: (3) Inceptives, by prefixing man; stād, be wise; man-stād, grow wise: (4) Reciprocals, by prefixing ia: ieit, love; ia-ieit, love one another: (5) Intensives, by prefixing the particles kyn, lyn, syn, tyn. Any noun or adjective may be treated as a verbal root by means of a prefix of these five classes. Thus, kajia, a quarrel (Hindōstānī loan-word, qazīa); ia-kajia, to quarrel with one another; bynta (Hindōstānī loan-word), share; pyn-ia-bynta (reciprocal-causal), to divide between several persons: 'rīwbhā, rich man; man-'rīwbhā, to grow rich: bhā, good; pyn-bhā, to make good.

There are two verbs for 'to be,' long, implying existence absolutely, and don, implying limited existence, and also meaning 'to have.'

Conjugation.—There is only one form of conjugation for all verbs. Tense and Mood are indicated by prefixes, number and person by the subject. When the subject is a noun, the pronoun is inserted before the verb.

Present.		P	AST.	FUTURE.		
Singular.	Plural.	Singular,	Plural.	Singular,	Plural.	
Ngā long, I am .	$Ngi\ long,\ { m we}$ are.	Ngā la long, I was.	Ngi la long, we were.	Ngā'n long, I shall be.	Ngi'n long, we shall be.	
$Mar{e}$ (masc.) or $phar{a}$ (fem.) $long$, thou art.	Phi long,ye are.	$Mar{e}$ or $phar{a}$ la $long$, thou wast.	Phi la long, ye were	$Mar{e}$ 'n or $phar{a}$ 'n $long$, thou shalt be.	Phi'n long, ye shall be.	
U (masc.) or ka (fem.) long, he or she is.	Ki long, they are.	U or ka la long, he or she was.	Ki la long, they were.	U'n or ka'n long, he or she will be.	Ki'n long, they will be.	

These simple tenses are rendered more definite or emphatic by various devices. I.a, sign of the past, when added to lah, sign of the potential, has the sense of the complete perfect: $ng\bar{a}$ la lah long, I have or had been. Yn (apocopated after a vowel to 'n), with sa added, emphasises the future. In the subjunctive mood (after haba, if), da is inserted to indicate a hypothetical condition: haba $ng\bar{a}$ da long, if I be; haba $ng\bar{a}$ da long, if I were. Other complex tenses are similarly formed with other particles.

The Imperative Mood is either (1) the simple root, long, be, or (2) to long, or (3) to long hō (emphatic).

The *Infinitive of Purpose* is composed of ba, the relative particle, and yn, the future particle, prefixed to the root: ba'n long, to be, or, for the purpose of being. The *Infinitive* of State is ka jing long or ka ba long, being.

Participles.—Ba long, being; ba la long, been.

Noun of Agency. -Nong long.

There is no *Conjunctive Participle*, such as plays so great a part in the syntax of Bara and other Tibeto-Burman languages.

The Passive Voice is formed by using the verb impersonally and putting the subject into the accusative case with ia. In the present, dang (particle of continuance) is prefixed to the verb: thus (ieit, to love),—I am loved=dang ieit ia $ng\bar{a}$; I was loved=la ieit ia $ng\bar{a}$; I shall be loved=yn ieit ia $ng\bar{a}$.

Potentiality is indicated by the verb lah, and Necessity by the verb dei, both used impersonally, with the feminine 'article' (for the neuter) ka, and followed by the relative particle ba. Thus, ka lah ba ngā la long, I might be (lit. it is possible that I was): ka dei ia ngā ba'n long, I ought to be (lit. it is necessary for me to be). Lah, in the present, is construed personally (ngā lah ba'n long, I can be), and impersonally only in the past and future: dei is impersonal throughout.

Dang and da indicate the Indefinite Present: ngā da trei, I am working.

The Negative sign is ym, apocopated after vowels to 'm: $ng\bar{a}$ 'm long, I am not. In the past tense $sh\bar{y}m$ is used in addition to ym: $ng\bar{a}$ 'm $sh\bar{y}m$ la thoh, I have not written. In the future ym follows the future particle yn: $ng\bar{a}$ 'n ym thoh, I will not write.

In the Imperative the Negative is wat: wat thoh or wat thoh mē, write not.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is (1) subject, (2) verb, (3) object; but very often, for the sake of emphasis, the verb (usually preceded by the 'article' or pronoun) is put before the subject: u la wan u brīw or la wan u brīw, the man came. Generally, it may be said that when emphasis is desired, the word to be emphasised is brought forward (i.e., nearer the commencement) in the sentence.

The following examples of Khassi in its various dialects have been provided by the Deputy Commissioner of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. I have already expressed my indebtedness to Sir Charles Lyall for the revision of the proofs. I must also take this opportunity of acknowledging the kindness of the Rev. H. Roberts, the author of the well-known Khassi Grammar and of other excellent works dealing with the language, who has likewise gone through the proofs, and has cleared up many points regarding which we were in doubt. His intimate knowledge of the various dialects of the language, which he has ungrudgingly placed at my disposal, has rendered it possible to represent them with considerable accuracy.

[No. 1.]

MON-KHMER FAMILY.

KHASSI.

STANDARD DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN I.

(U Mohan Roy, 1900.)

u-briw u-ba la-don ār-ngut ki-khūn La-don u-wei shinrang. hadtwo-persons children Was-there manwhomale. Who onejong-u, 'ko-pa, noh ha ngā la-ong ha u-kypa āi khadduh u ka the-father father, his. saidtogiveaway to lastmethe Te u la-pyn-ia-bynta ha ki ia ngā.' katba bynta ka-ba hāp don. dividedportion which falls to me.Then he to them whatever he has. u-ba khadduh hynda u la-ialum Hadin ka-ta ym būn sngi u-ta lang last when that not many days thatwho he gathered together jing-leit sha ka-rī ka-ba ia-kiei-kiei baroh u la-leit jing-ngāi; hang-ta a-country which wentjourney tofar; things la-pyn-syrwa nobia-ka-bynta jong-u ba \mathbf{u} da-leh sarong-awria. ruh u wastedawaythe-portion histhat he doingriotous. alsoheHynda u la-pyn-lut kumta ia-kiei-kiei baroh, la-jïa 'nemsnīw ka-ba things When he had-spent 80 all,happened famine (bad-year) which khrāw ha ka-ta ka-rī, u ruh u la-sydang ban sngow kyrduh. Hynda kumta u great in that country, he also he began to feel want. When la-ia-soh bad u-wei na ki-trāi-shnong ka-ta ka-rī, u-ba la-phah ia-u sha one from master-citizens (of-)that country, who sent himTeu la-sngow kwah ba'n pyn-kydang jong-u ba'n āp snïang. lyngkha fieldhistotendpig.Then hefeltdesirefillki te donia la ka-k'poh na skop, ymba ăi ia-n. that gives to-him. from husks, then not there-is own bellythoseu la-ong, 'katnō-ngut ki-shakri u-kypa la-kynmāw-brīw Hinre hynda u when he remembered-himself he said,'how-many servants the-father jong-ngā ki-ba don ka-jingbām kyrhāi, $ng\bar{a}$ \mathbf{te} ngā'n-sa-iap thyngan. I havefood abundant, thenI-will-dieminewhohungrys joit bad ngā'n-leit sha u-kypa jong-ngā bad Ngā'n-da ïeng ngã'n-ong I-will-goI-will andto the-father minestandupandI-will-say "ko-pā, ha-u, ngala-leh pop pyrsha byneng bad khymat "father, \mathcal{I} didagainstheavento-him, andinface jong-më; bad ngā'm long u-ba bit shuh ba-yn-khot of-thee; and I-not amwhoworthy any-more to-call to-pyn-long jong-më; u-khūn ia-ngā ia-ngā kum u-wei na liken.eEon thine; cause-to-be me onefrom

ki-shakri jong-mē." $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{e}$ u la-ïeng bad la-leit sha la-u-kypa. u he stood and he thine." servants Thenwenttoown-father. Hinrei haba u da-dang-ha-jing-ngāi, u-kypa jong-u u la-ioh-īh ia-u bad But whilst he still-at-a-distance, father hishesawhim and he la-sngow-isvnei, u la-phet ruh, bad u la-hāp ha ka-ryndang jong-u, felt-pity, heran also, andhefelltothe-neck u la-iai-ia-doh ruh ia-u. Te u-ta u-khūn u la-ong ia-u 'Ko-pa ngā la-leh also him. Then that he said to-him 'Father I did 8012 pop pyrsha byneng bad ha-khymat jong-më, te nga'm long shuh u-ba bit sin against heaven and in-face of-thee, then I-not am anymore who fit ba-vn-khot ia-nga u-khūn jong-mē.' Hinrei u-ta u-kypa u la-ong ia ki-shakri jong-u, m.esonthine.' But that father he said to servants his, 'wallam noh ia-ka-jain-kūp ka-ba kor-tam, to-pyn-kūp ruh ia-u; to-buh ruh 'bring away a-garment which best,put-on also him; ia-ka-'sah-'tī h**a** ka-kti jong-u, bad ki-juti ha ki-slajat jong-u. To ngi'n his.in the-hand his. and shoes on feetLeta-ring ia-bam, ngi'n ia-leh kymen; na-ba u-ne u-khūn jong-ngā u-ba la-iap, u do merry; from-what this together-eat, us son minewho died, he pat; bad u la-long u-ba la-jah noh, bad la-shem pat ia-u.' Kumta was-alive again; and he was who lost away, and found again him.' la-ia-sydang ba'n ia-leh kymen. $_{
m ki}$ begantodomerry. they

Te u-khūn u-ba kham shiwa jong-u u la-don ha lyngkha. Te katba who more old hishe was field. Then while Then son ka-īng u la-ioh-sngow ia-'tiar-rüai bad ia-ki-ba la-nang-wan hajan house he got-to-hear and who he was-continue-coming near singersla-khot ia-u-wei na ki-ta ki-shakri u la-kylli, shād. Te haba \mathbf{u} Then when he calledonefrom those servantsheasked, dance. 'aiuh ka-lah long ki-ne kiei-kiei ruh?' U te u la-ia-thuh ha u, these things also?' He then he (reciprocal)-said to him, onal can la-wan u-para jong-mē, te u-kypa jong-mē u la-pyn-iap ia-ubrother thine, then the-father thine he killedthefor-that came ba la-pyn-sngāid, naba u la-ioh pyd-diang pat ia-u u-bakhūn-massi fattened, for he gotreceiveagain him vohoson-cow la-bittar, u-'m mon ba'n leit ha-poh. koit-ba-khiah. Hynda kumta u safe-and-sound. After like-that he was-angry, he-not will to go to-inside, u-kypa jong-u haba u la-mih-habar u la-kyrpād ia-u. Namarkata From-the-cause-(of)-that the-father his when he got-to-out he entreated him. u la-ong ia-u-kypa, 'ha-khymih, la-katta T te u da-ia-thuh snem so-long He then he continue-telling he said to-the-father, • behold year la-pallat ia-ka-hukum dang-shakri ia-mē bad ngā-'m jiw I continue-serving thee I-not transgressed a-command andever

pynban ${
m m}$ ē-' ${
m m}$ jiw la-ai ha-ngā wad ia-i-khūn-blang jong-mē; thou-not ever gavest to-meevena-little-daughter-goat thine; yetjong-ngā. Hinrei haba ia-leh-kymen bad ki-lok la-wan iohba•ngā-'n get to-do-merriment with friends mine.Butwhencamethat-I-willjong-mē, u-ba la-bam-dūh ia-ka-jing-im jong-mē ha ki-nuti, mē une u-khūn ate-out livelihoodthine to harlots, thou thine, whothisba-la-pyn-sngāid.' \mathbf{U} u la-ong ia-u, ia-u khun-massi te la-pyn-iap fattened.' Hethenhesaid to-him, theson-cow killedbad kiei-kiei baroh ki lembad ngā hala ka-sngi mē don 'ko-khūn day thou art together with meandthingsallthey · O-son every jong-ngā ki long ki jong-mê. Te ka-la-dei ba'n ia-leh-kymen bad ba'n they are they thinc. Then $it ext{-}was ext{-}meet$ todo-merry andtojong-mē u la-long u-ba la-iap, te ia-leh sngowbhā, naba u-ne u-para pleasure, whodied, then brotherthine he wasdoforthisla-shem pat ia-u.' u-ba la-jah, pat; bad u la-long bad la-im u found again him.' he was-alive again; and he waswholost,

MON-KHMER FAMILY.

KHASSI.

STANDARD DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN II.

(U Mohan Roy, 1900.)

Ka-ba ngā kynmāw shaphang u-jumāi.

What I remember concerning the-earthquake.

jumāi ka-wei ka-kynthei ka la-iap ha Ha ka-por ka-step the-time the earthquake one woman diedบท the-morning iong ka-ta ka-sngi, bad ka la-slap ha ka-ta ka-sngi, bad ngā la dang-wan thatday, and it rained on that day, andΙ coming na ba-tep. Namar ba ka long ka-sngi ka-ba pyjah ngā la-s'āid returned from burial. Because that it was daywhich cold I warmed ding hapoh ing. Hynda katto-katne ngā la-mih sha beranda, fire inside house. After like-that-like-this-(i.e., little-while) I got-out to veranda, ka-jing-khynniuh mian-mian kum ka jong bad ngā la-ioh-sngow u-jumāi. and I a-trembling slowly got-to-feel thatof earthquake. Ngā la-sngāp bhā bad ngā la-ioh-sngow ka-jing-khynniuh ka nang the-trembling it grows-more severe, I listened well and I felt bad ngā la-mih sha phyllaw-ing. Tang ngā shu phải ha phyllaw, kaand I got-out to front-yard-house. Only I just reach to front-yard, thejing-khynniuh ka la jur eh. La ngā la-khymīh-lynti ba ka-'n-da-jahthat it-would-passit was severe very. Although I expected noh, ka-jing-khynniuh ka nang kham-jur Ha ka-ta ka-por ngā pynban. At that the-trembling it grows more-severe nevertheless. timela-shepting eh. Ngā la-don jing-kyrmen ba ka-'n-da-jah-noh, hinrei hynda ki-khlih was-afraid very. I that it-would-pass-off, but when the-tops hadhope atoshkhana ki la-kyllon, ngā la-ong, 'u-Blei u ia-leh shisha ia ka-pyrthei, chimney I said, 'God he fights indeed against the world, jing-ārtatīn bad ym ba yn-sa-pyn-duh ia ka-pyrthei.' Ha donand not there-is two-thoughts (i.e., doubt) that will-destroy to the-world. kane ka-por ngā la-khymīh-lynti man ka-khyllip-'mat ba yn klūn hapoh this time I expected every twinkling-of-an-eye that will swallow within khyndew, bad ba ynbaroh shi-syndon. dep and that will end earth, allone-time.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

What I recollect of the earthquake.

At the time of the earthquake a woman had died in the morning of the day, and it was raining on that day, and I had just returned from the burial. As it was a cold day, I warmed myself by the fire inside the house. After a little while I went into the veranda and I felt a slight trembling as of an earthquake. I listened attentively and felt the trembling more severe and then I went to the front of the house. Just as I got to the front of the house the shaking was extremely severe. Although I expected it to cease, the shaking continued still more and more severe. Then I was very much afraid. I had some expectation that it would cease, but when the chimney tops came down I said, 'God is indeed fighting against the world and there is no doubt now that the world will be destroyed.' By this time I expected every moment to be swallowed up in the ground and done for once for all.

LYNG-NGAM.

The Lyng-ngam dialect of Khassi is spoken in the west of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills District, near the Garo Hills. So little has hitherto been known about it that it has usually been considered to be a dialect of Gārō. It is, however, a form of Khassi, and has no connexion with any language of the Tibeto-Burman family. It is estimated that the number of its speakers is 1,850. It presents many peculiar features. The following are the principal points of difference between it and the Standard dialect. As it has not been used as a literary dialect, there is no form of spelling, and the same word will be found spelt in two or three different ways in the specimens.

The **Vocabulary** deserves study. Some of the commonest verbs are very different from those used in the Standard dialect. There are also many minor differences of pronunciation. 'A man' is u-breo, not u-brīw, and 'a son' is u-khōn, not u-khūn. Standard ng is often represented by nj. Thus doinj for ding, fire. This sound is represented in other dialects by \tilde{n} .

A final h often appears as k, and an initial b as p. Thus, baroh (Standard), all, becomes prok. Standard ei becomes aw. Thus, wei = waw, one; dei = daw, be necessary.

As regards 'Articles,' they are frequently omitted. The masculine singular is u, and the feminine singular is ka, as in the Standard dialect. U is, however, also used for the plural instead of ki, as in $\bar{a}r$ -ngut u- $kh\bar{o}n$ -korang, two sons; je-met ngut u- $mr\bar{a}w$, how many slaves. The diminutive article is often used without any apparent reason,—possibly as a neuter. Thus, i-rynong, the property.

NOUNS.—The prefix of the **Accusative-Dative** is se or sa, often contracted to s', instead of ia.

The prefix of the **Dative** is hanam, hnam, or tnam. The Standard Dative-Locative prefix ha is also used, and may be spelt he or hy. We also find ta or te.

For the Genitive besides the Standard jong, we have ba, am-ba, amb, am, and am-nam. Am-nam and am also mean 'from'.

The plural sometimes takes the suffix met. See List of words, Nos. 140, 141, etc. It is apparently only used with names of animals.

Adjectives.—The usual word for 'male' is korang, and for 'female' konthāw, in place of the Standard shin-rang and kyntheiirespectively. As examples of comparison we have,

Re-myrriang, good.

Mai myrriang, better.

U re-myrriang khynnang, best.

The Standard suffix tam is also used for the superlative.

The prefix re seems to correspond to the Standard adjectival prefix ba.

PRONOUNS .- The Personal Pronouns are,-

Singular. Plural.

1 st Person ne biāw, iāw.

2 nd Person mi, mei phiāw.

3 rd Person u, ju, u-ju kiw.

The Nominative of the pronoun of the 2nd person singular is given once as ba-mi, and once as ma-mi. The ma or ba is the Standard emphatic prefix ma.

I do not know if there is a feminine form for this person. Its existence under the form of pha may be inferred from the plural $phi\bar{a}w$.

The Demonstrative Pronouns which I have noted are be, tei, that, and uni, or nih, this. Be is used as a definite article in the phrase be jawmai, the earthquake.

The Relative Pronoun is u-lah, who.

Interrogative Pronouns are uet, u-iet, who? and met, what?

VERBS.—The pronoun which is the subject of a verb may either precede or follow it. Thus, ne rip, I strike: rip biāw, we strike. This pronoun is very often omitted when the sense is evident from the context.

The Standard causal prefix pyn appears in Lyng-ngam as pan.

The words meaning 'to be' are re, im, long, and meit. Like the Standard don, im, corresponding to Synteng em, also means 'to have'.

As in the Standard, the Present Tense is formed by using the bare root.

The Past Tense is formed in one of five ways, viz.,

- 1. By suffixing let, as in ong-let, said.
- 2. By suffixing lah-let, as in dih-lah-let, went.
- 3. By prefixing lah, and suffixing let, as in lah-ong-let, said.
- 4. By prefixing lah, as in lah-kyllei, asked.
- 5. By prefixing yn, (yng, ym), as in yn-nai, gave; yng-kheit, shook; ym-pait, broke; yn-jai, fell.

There seems to be no difference in the use of these various forms. A good example is $s'ng\bar{u}$ pyn-dai-let, lah-hir-let, dim-lah-let ha krang jong ju, (he) felt pity, ran, fell on his neck.

The particle of the **Future** is, as in the Standard, yn, but it is added to the verb in a very peculiar way. If the root is a monosyllable, it is *inserted* into the middle of the root, immediately after the first consonant. Thus, rip, strike; rynip, will strike. If the root is a compound, it is inserted between the two members, as in pan-yn-sop, will fill.

The Future sometimes takes the form of the Present. Thus, ne wan-di(h), I will go; phiāvo rip, you will strike or you strike. Apparently, also, the future with yn can be used in the sense of the present. Thus, in the list of words (205), ne dynih is given as the equivalent of 'I go', the root meaning 'to go' being dih.

The Infinitive has the same form as the Future.

This formation of the Future and the Infinitive by the *insertion* of *yn* into the body of the root is very interesting. Similar infixes occur in Malay, in the Nancowry dialect of Nicobar, and the Malacca aboriginal languages (see the introduction to the Mon-Khmer Family).

We have seen that yn, prefixed, gives the force of the Past Tense. Here we may note that the writer of the specimens seems to double the n of yn before a vowel. Thus we have yn-nai, gave, for yn-ai, the root being ai. So we have byn-nang, let us eat, from bang, eat, for b-yn-ang; and (second specimen) dyn-no, to sell, probably for d-yn-o, the Standard root being die. Another example of this form is probably re-ryn-naw,

a cultivator (No. 58 in list of words). Here ryn- $n\bar{a}w$ is probably for r-yn- $\bar{a}w$ from $r\bar{a}w$ (the Standard trei, hence 'rei, $r\bar{a}w$), to do. Finally we apparently find the infix in 'nj-yn-nap, die, from njiap or njap, to die.

The conjecture may be hazarded (but it is a mere conjecture) that in these cases the verbs are old compounds, and that the yn is inserted between the two members. Thus rip, to beat, may be a corruption of pyr-iap, to cause to die, and rynip is for pyr-yn-iap, ryn-iap, ryn-iap, ryn-iap, ryn-iap, ryn-iap, ryn-iap.

The prefix of the **Imperative** is nei, as in nei-ai, give; nei-lam, bring. Perhaps also ma in ma-kup, put-on; ma-phong, put-on; Compare List of words Nos. 79, 85, ma-chong (standard shong), sit; ma-hir, run.

The negative particle appears to be ji, jiat, jet, suffixed. Ji occurs in the parable in wan-sah-ji, go-in would not; be-ai-ji, gavest not; jiat, appears in daw-jiat, not worthy; jet in $i\bar{a}w$ bang ioh-jet $j\bar{a}$, we did not get to eat (i.e.), were not able to eat) rice, is perhaps the same word. Besides these a separate negative appears as ynji in ynji breo yn-nai se-ju, no man gave to him; $nj\bar{a}p$ ynji, died no one. This ji is probably connected with the Standard jiw, ever, continually, which may possibly have assumed a negative sense (cf. the French point, pas, jamais, and the Persian $h\bar{e}ch$). (See post, under $W\bar{a}r$, a corresponding use of ju.)

¹ Standard ei becomes aw or aw in Lyng-ngam. Thus wei=waw; kynthei=kynthaw.

[No. 3.]

MON-KHMER FAMILY.

KHASSI.

LYNG-NGAM DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN I.

(U Dohory Ropmay, 1900.)

dohdit u-khon-korang. Hymbu am u-breo im-let ār-ngut Waw smallofchildren-male. Brotherhadtwo-person One man O i rynong $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ pa, jong amju, pa ong-let hy kiw "O father, the property of. fatherhim, themsaid0f hnam Namba im-khynnong prok jong ne.' dāw nei-ai s'ne Then property allme.' of toto-me belongs givesa-kiw. Tah-shibit-nan bandon am ta lum-ryng-let ju rih-lah-let bad afterof that gathered-together them. A-short-time dividedwithhimk'ma-ekjin kkäi jong dih-lah-let te-j'ng-ngi, am-ta bad prok wastedsubstance· to-far, therewentalland bud-ryng-let prok, snim-kyncha khynnong synnupepahsat. Am-ta \mathbf{remin} iu spent-entirely all, year-bad riotous-living. Whenarosewithhim dah-rymmein s'ngū-khoh-duh-let. Nang-de-ledde Am-ta tnam-ïaw. tham Then feel-want. land-our. Then begantowards u-lah hat-let ritskir-j'nong se-ju ta lyngkhā dih-njia-son bad u-wai withwhosenthim to fieldswent-in-company. onecitizendih-ngiang sh'ngïang. U-kyndur pan-yn-sop sa-khlaw jong ju ha He-desired the-belly swine, to-fill himfeedofledde-lah-bang-let; de snih-juba sh'ngïang ynji hyn-jong de breo huskseaten; withbyswinenohis-own man De $tma-breo-let^1$ kyr-rah-let, 'je-met yn-nai se-ju. ngut gave to-him. When (he)-remembered-manhood (he)-said, 'how-many persons amb-ne im jong-bām phyllui, namha ne he-de-re jong pa 'njiap of-me have foodabundant, but I. of father hereslavesdie ${
m Ne}$ njeng-dugang, ne wan-di tnam pa, hylle-wet. $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{e}$ ong-trai he-ju. I $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{I}}$ to father, I (will)-arise, (will)-gowill-say hunger. to-him, " O lah-raw-pāp-let Brei bad ha-tang-nga рa, ne se mi; pan-tinj did-sin"O father, I toGod and *before* thee; to-be-called $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ daw-jiat; khōn sa theng s'ne waw skainang u-mrāw jong mi."' son to theenot-worthy; make me slaveoneasof thee." Nang-de-ledde njeng-dugang, wan-lah-let tnam Nambe te-j'ng-ngi-bah, pa. Then (he)-arose, father. Butcame toat-a-distance

¹ Compare tymma in first line of Specimen II.

s'ngū-pyn-dai-let, lah-hir-let, lah-myja-let se-ju, ne рa amju u feel-pity-did, father0f himsawhim, andran, dim-lah-let jong-ju, yn-nop-let se-ju. De u-khōn lah-ong-let krang ha fellneckof-him, kissedhim. Then the-son saidon lah-raw-pāp se Brei bad ha-tang-nga mi; pan-tinj se-ju, pa, to God and to-be-called 60 father, (I)-did-sin *before* thee; to-him, $_{
m mi}$ daw-jiat.' Nambe ong-let . mrāw jong ju, khōn sa рa se not-worthy.' But father saidtoslavesofhim, sonofthee'nei-lam u-jain myrriang tamse-mar jain, makup se ju; maphong ' bring mostof-all clothes, put-on him; put-on robe goodtolut-ktei slā-k'jat am maphong u-juta hashirut-tei ha \mathbf{ka} jong ju, feetthefinger of him, put-on shoesonring ju; nei-lam u khōn-masseo ne-lah-pan-mir, hai pan-njāp-iah se-ju; hai thechild-oxfatted, let-us killit; let-us him; bring phylleo; u-khōn jong ne bad hai namba uni lah-njap-let, byn-nang, childand let-us be-merry; for thisofmedied, eat. lah-im-kylla-let; lah-k'ma-let, jymmeo-kylla-let.' Hede bad u u has-come-to-life-again; was-lost, was-found-again.' andhehephylleo kylla-di-wet. to-be-merry (they)-began.

Namba njang-wan U khōn im-let halyngkhā. san jong ju field.As(he)-came The child elderofhimwasinjong-thek-klem-bli bad jong-jymat. Nambe ju s'ngū-let j'ngan īnj, perceived musicanddancing. When henear house, 'phïāw am-raw met?' U-iu u-mrāw, \mathbf{u} lah-kyllei, ne-lah-kek-let se-waw 'you dowhat? Heasked, slave, he(he)-called one'u hymbu jong mi lah-wan-let; u k'pa lah-khna-let nam ju, younger-brother of thee came; the father `thehim,jong mi lah-hynjaid se-u-khōn-masseo re-had-ym-mir, namba u njoh-kylla-let fatted, because he received-again of thee killedthe-child-oxNang-de-ledde eit-not-let, myrriang byng-ha.' wan-sah-ji. se-ju la condition. (he)-was-angry go-in-wished-not. Then goodhiminju meit-let torot, jylliam-let se-ju. U-ju u k'pa jong Am-ta fatherofhimcameout,entreatedthe**Therefore** рa ju, 'untad, la-katta snim ne $\mathbf{mr\bar{a}w}$ nam-me; jong lah-ong-let nam \boldsymbol{I} him, ·lo, so-many years slaveof-thee; father of saidtongeit-ji jong1-hukum ba-mi; nambe minot-minot minot-minot commandof-thee; yetnever disobeyed never khōn blang raw-khynnang ba'n ioh-phylleo hnam ne u be-ai-ji in-order childtothegoatbe-merry (thou)-gavest-not to

¹ Jong here corresponds to the Standard jing.

 \mathbf{m} i tah; wan u-khōn jong Nambe ne. lok \mathbf{am} \mathbf{m} a as-soon-as-came the-childoftheeBut0f me. friendswithlah-hynjaid se-khōn-masseo $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ mi, ambalah-bang-dok-let \mathbf{spah} killedstthe-child-oxthouof thee, property(who)-wasted 'O khôn, jan-be-sngei $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ ong-let nam ju, U had-ym-mir-let.' pa every-day thouchild, **'** O him,saidtofatherThefatted.' amba \mathbf{prok} bad mi.jong ne U-met-u-met hnam ne. chong-son qfalsoofthee.meallWhatever remainest-withme.tou-raw-s'ngū-myrriang, namba ` uni bad raw-phylleo Te dynnaw (to)-feel-glad, forthisand(to)-make-merry oughtSo lah-k'ma-let, im-kylla-let; u lah-njap, bad jong mi u u-hymbu existed-again; was-lost, heandyounger-brother of thee he was-dead, jymmeo-kylla se-ju.' bad found-again him.'

[No. 4.]

MON-KHMÉR FAMILY.

KHASSI.

LYNG-NGAM DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN II.

(U Dohory Ropmay, 1900.)

Um-met ne tā-ha-jong tymma u jawmai.

What I at-the-time recollect the earthquake.

jawmai tā-ha-thu-tak ha jong jut $s\bar{o}m$ dyn-no Yngkheit be the earthquake justattime sharpening spearto-sell Shooktiang-dait ynnan bet. Ï-in Yngkheit kynsan. Neprok ïw. ha afraid Shookmuch very. The-house allat market. severe. \boldsymbol{I} met-met khiaw kymiang ympait, yn-ji. lah-lip. Njāp yn-ji. Tah broke, anything(else)no-one. earthennot.Onlyvesselsfell.Diednjoh He-ymmot ïāw bang njoh jet ja. Synshih se jāw bang ja. eat * (was)-got food. gotnot food. Morning toAt-night eatjymbait prok. hatyrna. Ynjai be slap kynsan, ïāw He-ymmot ïāw $_{
m in}$ (were)-wet Fellthe rain heavily, out side.At-night we slept

SYNTENG OR PNAR.

This dialect is spoken over the greater part of the east of the District of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, i.e., in the Jaintia country. The number of speakers is estimated to be about 51,740. The following are the main points of difference between it and Standard Khassi. The word 'Pnar' means 'Dwellers of the Upper Hills' of the Jowai sub-division of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills District.

The **Vocabulary** differs mainly in pronunciation. Thus, we have \bar{e} for ai, give; mo for $m\bar{a}w$, stone; wi for wei, one; bru for briw, man; ba-sih, for ba- $sn\bar{i}w$, bad; $Bl\bar{a}i$ for Blei, God. There are not so many words peculiar to the dialect as in Lyng-ngam. With $Bl\bar{a}i$ compare Lyng-ngam Brei, the War $Pr\bar{a}i$, and the Palaung $Pr\bar{a}$.

The **Pronunciation** is generally as in the Standard dialect, but attention must be called to the fact that the standard ng is sometimes represented by nj. This nj is sometimes represented by the letter \tilde{n} . Thus, dinj or $di\tilde{n}$, for the Standard ding, fire. This nj or \tilde{n} is variously pronounced. Properly pronounced, it is a peculiar nasal, something like n-ng, but in some localities, where the speakers 'crunch' or 'munch' their words (owing to their habit of perpetually chewing betel), it has the sound of nj or nji (i.e., njy, in which y has the English consonantal sound, and not the vowel-sound of Khassi). As explained above, the specimens and list of words represent the sound in two ways.

The Order of words is not so strict as in Standard Khassi. The pronoun which indicates the subject of the verb quite commonly follows it instead of (or as well as) preceding it, in this agreeing with the other dialects, but differing from the Standard.

As regards the Articles, they are the same as in the Standard dialect. It should, however, be noted that the article *i* is frequently used, not in a diminutive, but in a neuter sense. Thus, *i-bhah*, the portion; ha *i-tu i por*, at that time.

NOUNS.—The declension appears to be exactly the same as in the Standard dialect. The same prepositions are used. *Ie* is often used instead of *ia* (Wār has *ei*).

ADJECTIVES.—The adjectival prefix, ba, is the same as in the Standard. The following are examples of comparison,—

 $Ba-bh\bar{a}$, good. $Rap-bh\bar{a}$, better. $Bh\bar{a}\ duh$, best.

 $Bh\bar{a}\ tam$ is also used for the superlative, as in the Standard. The comparative prefix rap also occurs in War.

PRONOUNS.—The Personal Pronouns are,—

The \bar{o} of the first person very commonly means 'my.' Thus, ki lok \bar{o} , my friends. Similarly, in the second person, u pain mi, thy brother. Again, for the third person,

ong u ha u-pa u, said he to the father his, he said to his father. This is not, however, peculiar to Synteng. The genitive prefix is often omitted in the Standard dialect.

The feminine form of the second person is not found in the specimens, but may be inferred from the plural phi to be pha, as in the Standard.

The Demonstrative Pronouns which I have noted are—

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u-ni corresponding to the Standard u-ne, this.
u-tu ,, ,, u-to, that (near).
u-te ,, ,, u-tai, that (far).
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The Relative Pronoun is u-ba or u-wa.

The Interrogative Pronouns are u-i, who? and i-i, what? corresponding to the Standard u-ei.

VERBS.—As already pointed out, the pronouns which indicate the subject, and also the subject when it is a noun, frequently follow, instead of preceding the verb.

The words meaning 'to be' are man and em. Em (compare the Standard im, to live), corresponds to the Standard don, and also means 'to have.' In the List of Words (Nos. 162, etc.) hi is suffixed to em. This is merely a participle of emphasis which may be attached to all verbs. Thus $l\bar{a}i$ hi u, he goes personally, corresponding to the Standard u leit hi. Em is used for both the present and the past tenses. It never takes the prefix da of the past tense.

The **Present Tense** is either the bare root-form, or else takes the prefix wa, as in wa sympat \bar{o} , I strike.

The **Past Tense** usually takes no prefix or suffix, and is therefore the same in form as the simplest form of the Present. Sometimes it takes the prefix da, which corresponds to the Standard la. Thus, da bom \bar{o} or da shoh \bar{o} , I struck, corresponding to the Standard $ng\bar{a}$ la shoh. Dep, meaning 'finished,' completed,' is sometimes added to da, see List of Words, Nos. 178, 186 and 193.

The sign of the **Future** is u, which is prefixed to the verb, as in u sympat \bar{o} , I shall strike; u $l\bar{a}i$ \bar{o} sha u-pa, will go I to the father, I will go to my father. The infinitive also takes u (corresponding to the Standard ba'n) as in u pyn-dap, (he desired) to fill. In both cases, this u corresponds to the Wār $j\bar{u}$. Yn also occurs once in the parable in the first person plural of the Imperative; to yn ia- $b\bar{a}m$ ia-dih ia-kymen, let us eat, drink, and be merry together.

[No. 5.]

MON-KHMER FAMILY.

KHASSI.

SYNTENG DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN I.

(U Kiri Dikhar, 1900.)

u-ba em $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ ngut ki-khōn u-wi n-bru shynrang. \mathbf{Em} hadchildrenThere-was whotwopersons haTeu-ba s'diāh ong \mathbf{u} u-pa u, 'pa, ē nohfather 'father, Then whoyoungest saidhetohis, away i-ba toh ia nga. Te bhāh ō kat n ki i-bhāh ia what falls to me.Then divided the-portion my whatever themi jong u. Ym bün sngi nai'te u-ba the of him. Not many days thence whatmas thatwhateverwhojong u baroh, u i s'diāh lum lang kat. ba em, lāi youngest gathered together he the of him all, whatever there was, went j'ngai: hei'te pyn-lut u sha i-wi i-shnong i-ba kat i-ba village which-(was) far: wasted he whatever what therei-leh sarong. Mynda lut jong \mathbf{ha} baroh kat i ba \mathbf{u} When itof himdoing proudly. spent allwhatever thereu-snem ba'sih. Hei'te daduh Nei'te lāi te poi u. em, bad. Then then came a-year beingin-want he. Then was, went u-tre-shnong ba u-wi i-te i-thāw; te ia-soh phāh withone citizenof-that place; join thensent u-lāi share snïang shalūm. Тe kwah u u u-pyn-dap hills. to-gotend pigstoThen desiredhimto-fill da-u-skop u-ba jub ki-snïang; ia-u-kypoh 11 $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{\tilde{a}m}$ with-husk which the-belly usuallyatethe-pigs; then ia u. Te ynda khyrñiat ba jong-bru u ong u. to him. Then when returned consciousness he said he, not there-was that give 'katnu ngut ki shakri õ ki-ba u-pa ioh pura i-ja 'how-many persons theservants the-father minewhogetenough rice be i-batam. Nga te thyngan. \mathbf{sa} iàp \mathbf{U} mihnoh lāi hungry. Will go-out(start) I will go and the-over. I then shall die"Pa, ō sha u-pa iohu ong ō ha u, nga daleh pāp ō I will father that willsay I to him, "Father, I have done hoi de $m\bar{e}$ be-i ia i-byneiñ; ym u khut ia-nga against thee and-also against heaven; notfit any-more to call

u-khōn mi; pyn-man nga kam u-wi-hi-eh u-shakri mi."' Te ïeng wot thy; make me as one-only a-servant thy." Then stood up lāi u sha u-pa u. Te katba dang jing-ngāi u khajiak, he then went he to father his. Then while being far u-pa u u sñiāw byrāi u, ia u iō wot phet u, saw as-soon-as the-father his him felt pity he, to him ran he, then \mathbf{wot} u u. Hei'te u-te u-khön ong khynrup u u, te doh he him, then kissed at-the-same-time he him. Then that the-son said seizedi-b'neiñ bei haba iō mi; u ha u, 'pa, nga da ${f leh}$ pāp ō ia he to him, 'father, I have committed sin I against heaven and when sawest thou; u khut mi ia-nga u-khōn mi.' ym hoi $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}$ ${f Te}$ not fit any-more to call thou me the-son thing.' Then the-father his nei'te ong u ha ki-shakri u, 'lam ka-that kūp ka-ba bhā thence said he to the-servants his, 'bring a-cloth wearing which goodtam; pyn-kup ia u pyn-dein ka-sahkti ha ka kti u, pyn-sap wa dress to him decorate a-ring to a hand his, put with ha ki-kyjat u. To yn ia-bām ia-dih ia-kymen. Neibhah uni ki-juta the-shoes on the-feet his. Let to eat drink make-merry. For this u-khōn ō u-ba da iap, da im wan u; u-ba da wïar, da shem son my who was dead, was alive again he; who was lost, was found u.' Nei'te ia-kymen ki. again he.' Then together-joy they.

Ha i-te i-por u-khön baheh em u ha lyngkha. Te katba dang In that time the-son eldest was he in field. Then as still wan u, poi u hajan iung, sñiw u ie-i barüai, bashād. la was coming he, came he near house, heard he something singing dancing. khut u ia u-wi na ki-shakri kylli u, 'Ileh kamni?' Te called he to one of the-servants asked he, 'Why thus?' Then said mi khawai u neibhah u ha u, 'da wan u-paiu $\mathbf{mi.}$ U-pa he to him, 'was come the-brother thine. The-father thine feasted he for da ioh-wan u u he-i shait he-i tram.' Hei'te shrai because has got-back he him in-his health in-his good-state.' Then angry u, te ym ben de u u p'siah hapoh iung. Nei'te at-once he, then not agree any-more he to enter in house. Therefore Te ong u ha u, lana u u. u-pa u-pa came-out the-father his, entreated he him. Then said he to the-father his, 'lo, sumar ö ia me, ym em ujuh tyngkhain ö nga bün snem ba da I many years that have taken-care I of thee, not have ever broken mi ia nga tang i-wi hukum mi; katte ilēh ym juh ē ie-i something order thine; yet also not ever gavest thou to me even one ō wa ia-sñiāw-bhā ki-lok i-khon blang ileh, ioh u also, that to together-feel-good I with the-friends mine. a-young goat

Kat-u-io-pathan $d\mathbf{u}$ wa poi hi uni u-khōn mi u-ba pyn-ngam In-spite-of-that as-soon-as that came only this the-son thine who plungedha \mathbf{te} ki-kusbi, ē khawai mi ie-i-bhāh u.**'** Nei'te thy-(property) in the-harlots, then give feast thou for-sake his.' Then ong u, 'khōn, mē u-ba juh em shirup ba nga, kat i-ba em i said he, 'son, thou who ever wast together with me, whatever what was that jong nga, du i jong mē \mathbf{Em} don. kam u ia-rkhai ia-kmen of me, only it of thee all. There-is need to make-merry jolly weneibhah u-ni, u paiu mi u-wa da iap, da im wan u; u·ba da this, the brother thine who was dead, was alive again he; forwho was wiar, da shem wan u.**'** lost, was found again he.'

MON-KHMER FAMILY.

KHASSI.

SYNTENG DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN II.

(U Kiri Dikhar, 1900.)

I-wow kynmo ia u-kh'mi.
What recollect of the-earthquake.

Ha i tu i-por ba-khai u-kh'mi, toh ha ka-sngi ka-ba iap ka-wi ka In that the-time arose the-earthquake, fell in the-day(on) which died one a hiar haroh u-slap. Te nga dang la-wan tlep bru woman, and (on-)which fell also the-rain. And I was came bury person just I. hang dinj ō ha t'pāi Te katda k'jam tehapoh iung, te duh because cold and warm fire I in hearth Andinsidehouse, then only shibet donhi te wot ō sha dhari. mih $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{e}$ sñiāw ō ba \mathbf{k} hi \mathbf{h} little-time only and went-out just I to veranda. felt I that rocking Andwer-wer kamwa khih u-kh'mi. Te bhā wot ō $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{b}$ shaking (or trembling) an-earthquake. And listened well just I slightly assñiāw ō da rap jongheh, \mathbf{m} ih \mathbf{wot} $\mathbf{\bar{o}}$ sha p'shem. Te felt I was more severe, went-out just I to front-of-house. And only that poi \mathbf{hi} õ ha p'shem, khih wot jongheh-jongheh. Katwa in front-of-house, shook arrived only Ijustseverely.severely. Although iô-luti u wïar, ilehsam khih seeing the road (i.e., expecting) to cease, nevertheless more-and-more shook pathan jongheh. Hei'te te da tein sihõ, te har notwithstanding severely. Then thenwas afraid very-much I, and although hi i-wa io-luti ie-i-wow wïar u. Te ileh dang rab emafraid also there something was also the expectation for-to cease it. And mynda hāp hi-eh i-khlih u atoshkhana, te ong ō, 'i-ni te da leh u-Blāi chimney, then said I, 'this then is doing God when fell down the-top dajong sakhiat; myntu te ym dam de \mathbf{u} ngam.' fail any-more to sink-down (the-world). with earnestness; nowthennot Katte te io-luti ō saduiei ba u ngam hi, By-that-time thenI expectedonlythatitwill-sink only, klukne shapoh te dep iam ne. swallowed-wholly inside then done for

For a free translation, see under Khassi (Standard).

WĀR.

This dialect of Khassi is spoken in the south-east corner of the District of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, in the country between Jowai and Jaintiapur. The word Wār means valleys. To its east and north, we find Synteng, and, to its west and north-west, Standard Khassi. The estimated number of its speakers is 7,000.

This dialect differs much more from the standard than does Synteng. There is no fixed form of spelling, and it will be found in the specimens that there is little uniformity observed in writing the same word when it occurs more than once. The following are the principal points in which the dialect differs from Standard Khassi.

The **Vocabulary** frequently differs. Thus, we have mi for wei, one; $n\ddot{i}a$ for kjat, a foot; l'men for bniat, a tooth, and many others. Even when a word is retained, it undergoes great changes. Thus, \ddot{a} for $\ddot{a}r$, two; $t\ddot{a}i$ for kti, a hand; $h\ddot{u}n$ for $kh\ddot{u}n$, a child; sni for $\ddot{i}ng$, a house.

As regards **Pronunciation**, we should note the occurrence of the letter \tilde{n} or nj, which has been explained under the head of Synteng. Generally speaking the pronunciation of words is indefinite. Thus, we have both *jungai* and *sh'ngāi* meaning 'a day'.

The Order of Words is not so strictly observed as in the Standard dialect. The subject, and especially the pronoun indicating the subject, frequently follow the verb.

As regards 'Articles,' the frequent use of the diminutive i as a neuter article should be observed. Thus, i swah-'m, the property of thee. U, ka, and ki are used as in the Standard dialect, but i is much oftener used for the plural (besides being used in the neuter singular) than ki.

NOUNS.—The prefix of the genitive is jong as in the Standard dialect, but it is very often omitted, as in u trai-shnong ka-te ka-ri, a citizen of that country.

For the Accusative-Dative, the prefix is ei, corresponding to the Standard ia, as in ei-ie, them or to them.

For the Dative, we have the Standard ha (also written he), and also tu, as in tu madan, (he sent him) to the fields.

The prefix ti is used in a great variety of meanings. Its proper use seems to be to denote the Ablative, as in ti u-pa, from a father; u-mi ti ki-shakri, one from (i.e., of) the servants. But it is also used for the Locative, as in a-ah u ti ka-lahi, he was in the field; dem u ti radang u, he fell on his neck. Again it is used for the Dative, as in ong u ti u-pa, he said to the father.

(It is possible that this word is borrowed from some Tai language, in which $t\bar{\imath}$ is used as the prefix both of the Dative and of the Ablative.)

Adjectives.—The Adjectival prefix corresponding to the Standard ba seems to be a or wa. The following are examples of comparison,—

wa-ry-um, good.
rap ry-um, better.
ry-um tam, or ry-um barē, best.

The comparative prefix rap also occurs in Synteng.

PRONOUNS.—The Personal Pronouns are,—

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	$nga,nge, ilde{n}ia,oldsymbol{o},a$	$\check{e}i$, i .
2nd Person	em, ym , m	$ ilde{e}hi,hi.$
3rd Person	$\bar{e}w,\;u,\ddot{v}ar{e}.$	ïē, i.

As regards the pronouns of the first person, nga is probably a slip of the pen by a writer accustomed to Standard Khassi for nge. Similarly, a, which occurs only once, and there means me (let me make merry with my friends), is evidently either a mistake for, or a by-form of, o. O and i both occur in Synteng under the forms \bar{o} and \bar{i} . For the second person, em and em are evidently different ways of spelling (and perhaps pronouncing) the same word. The contracted form, 'em, is very common, and has become a suffix meaning 'thy', as in em are a singular pronoun in the specimens, it is translated 'it'. It is probably a neuter pronoun, a contraction of em occurs, in the specimens, always refers to human beings, and means 'them' (ee-em, when it occurs in the specimens, always refers to human beings, and means 'them' (ee-em, to them). It also may be a contraction of em (em) being in this case the plural prefix).

The **Demonstrative Pronouns** which I have noted are *u-ne*, this, and *u-te*, that. The 'article,' of course, changes according to gender. In ti te i hūn sni, in that small house, the article is not prefixed to the pronominal termination.

The Relative Pronoun is u-a, ka-a, i-a, pl. ki-a or i-a, corresponding to the Standard u-ba, etc. A is sometimes written wa, thus, u-wa. After i it is sometimes written ia, as in i-ia, ki-ia.

The Interrogative Pronoun is ai, to which the appropriate article is prefixed according to gender.

VERBS.—The words meaning 'to be' are man and ah. The latter is the equivalent of the Standard don and also means 'to have'. Te is also used to mean 'was', but in the specimens it only occurs with the negative pong.

The **Present Tense** is formed by prefixing a to the root. Thus, a-man o, I am; a-sympat 'm, thou strikest. Compare the Synteng prefix wa. As already pointed out, the pronoun of the subject usually follows the verb. The a is sometimes omitted, so that we have the bare root as in the Standard dialect. Thus, $em\ u$ - $a\ beh\ ah\ be\ \tilde{n}ia$, thou who always art with me.

The **Past Tense** takes the prefix da or de, as in da choh nge, I struck; da pyn-lang, collected; da duk, became poor; de pyn-lut, spent. Synteng also has da.

Instead of da, we also find a, as in a-ah u ti ka-lahi, he was in the field; a-ai khawai u-pa'm, gave feast the father of-thee, thy father gave a feast. In a-da-wan u-bo'm, hath-come the brother of thee, thy brother hath come, we have both a and da to form the perfect. A is said to be the equivalent of the Standard la.

Often the prefix is omitted in this tense, as in liā-u, he went (to a far country).

The **Future Tense** is formed by prefixing ju, as in ju sympat nge, I shall strike. So we have ju zeng nge, I will stand; ju $l\ddot{i}a$ nge, I will go. Compare Synteng u.

The Infinitive Mood is formed by the same prefix. Thus, hyng-eh tang ju-ba, difficult even to eat; ju hut hūn'm, to call thy son; ju-wan, to come (into the house).

Ju appears to have the meaning of 'never' in the following phrases,—

Ah ju bon sh'ngai, there were not even many days.

Ah ju tympung nge, I never violated (thy command).

Ah ju-beh ai'm, thou hast never given.

Ju seems to be the equivalent of the Standard jiw, ever. See the remarks on the negative in Lyng-ngam.

Another negative is pong, as in,-

Ry-um ie te pong, good it was not (to call me thy son).

Henle te dam te pong ju ngem, now then failed was not to sink, i.e. (the world) will now certainly sink. In this sentence the ju is certainly the sign of the infinitive, as we see from the next line of the specimen.

We must, however, note that pong also means 'again', as in the phrase, 'was found again', which occurs twice in the parable, and in one place is da toh pong $\bar{e}w$, and in the other da toh wan $\bar{e}w$.

Yet another negative appears in line 3 of the parable, ah hyn-ah, is not-is, i.e., everything. Compare the Mikir $k\bar{a}d\bar{o}-k\bar{a}v\bar{e}$, what-is what-is-not, used in exactly the same sense. Mikirs (who speak a Tibeto-Burman language) live next to the Wār people, at the head-waters of the river Kopili.

MÓN-KHMÉR FAMILY.

KHASSI.

WAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN I.

(U Kiri Dikhar, 1900.)

U-mi u-juprēw $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{h}$ ar-bai i-hūn u. U-wa jiang ti ei-ïë He-who younger from them One a-mantwo-persons sons his. ti u-pa 'pa, ai i-bhah 0 ong \mathbf{u} nohharem his, father, give away the-share mine that-which falls hethe-father said tu ñia. Te bhāh he ei-ïë kat-a ah hyn-ah i jong me. Then divided to them whateverisnot=is $\it that$ $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{h}$ ju bön sh'ngāi ieu-te u-hūn u u-wa jiang da pyn-lang Were not the-son his what younger was collecting since that manydaysbaroh, te lïā-u ka-ri sh'ngūi, ti-te pyn-lut u sha ka-a he ' αll , went-he which then toa-country far, therespent he hymman. Lah jong-u ti kam de pyn-lut u baroh poi ka-When in deeds wicked.hasspent he alloccurredsnia snem ka-ri. ka-a $_{
m mia}$ ka-te Te duk u. bad-year (famine) which great thatincountry. Then became poor he. ${
m Te}$ liā ñiah-lok u-trai-shnong ka-te u ba u-mi ka-ri. Then wentmake-friends hewithonea-citizen that country. madan. ēw ju-līā sharui rñiang u Te Teruh \mathbf{tu} kwah he him to-go Then wished fields. Then senttendpigshei-te i-skop i-a ba ki-rñiang. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{h}$ teu-wa ai ju-ba $^{\mathrm{da}}$ ha ew. those husks that ate the-pigs. Noonewho give bytohim.to-eat kymmo jong-juprēw-u ong u, 'shi hymbow bai i-shakri Lah said he, ' how many persons When he remembered his-manhood servantsu-pa ki-ia \mathbf{ah} i-ba i-a hyng-eh tang ju-ba, kat ñia ñiang father who have food which difficult (i.e. too-much) even to-eat, while I I-will tymphoh ti-ne. zeng nge, ju lïā nge sha iip Ju WillstandI, will go I to the-father, will say hungryhere.die" pa, da leh pāp nge ha em ba ha i-phlïang. Ry-um nge "father, have done sin Ito thee and to heaven. \mathcal{I} te pong ju hut hūn'm ha ñia. Pyn-man ha ñia kaw mi u-shakri'm."' it was not to call son-thy to me. Maketo me as one a-servant-thine." Te zeng te liā Teshau. kata dang u u-pa went he stand (arise) he, thento the-father his. Then Then while still

ēw; sah shep u ha ēw; sh'ngūi u, te mah u-pa u te phet far he, then saw the-father his him; felt pity he on him; then ran doh u ēw. **U-**te u-hūn ong u u, dem u ti radang u, te he, fall he on neck his, then kissed he him. That sonsaid he leh pāp o ha i-phlïang ba ti ēw, ʻpa, da \mathbf{ti} 'mat'm, to him, 'father, have done sin I to heaven and toface-thine, ry-um iē te pong ju hut hun'm ha ñia.' Te upa u ong u good it was not to call son-thy to me.' Then the father his said he u, 'nam i-dïa i-a ry-um tam, pyn-kūp \mathbf{ha} i-shakri to the-servants his, 'bring a-cloth which good most, clothe upon him; pyn-phin bei ksah-tai ti tai u, bei juta ti nia u. Toñia-ba put-on also ring on hand his, and shoes on feet his. Let eat-together ñia-kymen i, katma u-ne u-hūn nge u-wa da iip, da py-em pong; u make-merry-together us, because this son mine who was dead, was alive again; he u-wa da wiar, da toh pong ēw.' Te da ñia-leh k'men iē. who was lost, was found again him.' Then was make merry they.

Ti ka-te ka-por u-hūn rongbah jong ēw a-ah u ti ka-lahi. Ti At that time the-son elder of his was he on the-field. At the-time poi u ti-jan sni, sah u hah i rüoi be kazai. La-tite hut kah wan as came arrived he to-near house, heard he of a song and dance. Then called u kin u-mi ti ki-shakri thui u, 'i-ai i-ah ni ië katte-katte?' Ong u ti he only one from the-servants asked he, 'what were doing they so-much?' Said he to bei a•ai khawai ēw, 'a-da-wan u-bo'm, u-pa'm him, 'kas-come the-brother-thine, and gave feast the-father-thine came the hïah dei u-py-em.' dei a para'm Lah tite kiat, u-wen brother-thine in good health in the-life.' Then there angry, he-would-not ju wan shapoh sni. Lah i-te shlohnubar, u-pa u he-then to come in house. After that came-out the-father his outside, la-na-lahon u ēw. Te ong u ti u, 'mah, shi kat-te snem u-pa entreated he him. Then said he to the-father his, 'see, all these years tympung nge ha i-hukum i shakri nge ha em; $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{h}$ ju to thee; have never violated I to a-order any of served I ti kañiah kañiah ka-por; ah jubeh emai'm ha ñia tang u hast never given-thou to me even a thee at a-time; any hūn-blang be ha di a ju ñiah-sah-syor bei lok nge. Pynban duh kid even to let me to make-merry with friends mine. Yetjust a wan \mathbf{hi} u-ne u-hūn'm u-wa pyn-lut ha i-swah'm ti ki as came only this the-son-thine who spent of the-property-thine to the kusbi, em khawai pynban ym ha i-bhah u.' Lah i-te ong ai harlots, thou gavest feast yet thou for sake his.' After that said u ha ēw, 'O hun, em u-a beh ah bei nia kat i-wa ah i he to him, 'O son, thou who always art with me as what-(I) have that

jong ñia i-te i jong em. Ah kam ha-ēi ju ñia-leh k'men i, bei of me that is of thee. There-is need for-us to make merry us, and ju sah-syor i. Mah, u-ne u-para'm u-ba da iip, te hyple to be-glad we. See, this the-brother-thine who was dead, but new da py-em pong u; da wïar u, te da toh wan ēw.' is alive again he; was lost he, then was found again him.'

[No. 8.]

MON-KHMÉR FAMILY.

KHASSI.

WAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS.)

SPECIMEN II.

(U Kiri Dikhar, 1900.)

I-a ju-kymmo ha u-kh'mai.

What to-recollect about the-earthquake.

ka-por a-how u-kh'mai ti ka-jungai Ti ka-te anka-a iip ka-mi At that timearose the-earthquake fell in the-day which died oneslai. Te ñia dang ka-juprēw, ba alah bow tep wan juprēw she-person, fell withrain.AndI was coming-(from) burying person and Katda kjam ïē, te rang shmen nge ti bet nga. twui shapoh I. Because coldit, then warm fire \boldsymbol{I} alsonear hearthinsidesni. shiwiat hi-ïe te shloh bet nge sha mukyndep. Te sah nge house. Then little-time only then went-out just \boldsymbol{I} to veranda. Then felt I akhing did-did, kāi-a khing u-khmai. Te sah diam bet nge, te trembling slightly, as-if tremble the-earthquake. And listened well then I, then rap jongheh ïë; shloh bet nge sha nudwar. nge de Te poi bet I with more severe it; went just I to courtyard. Then arrived just khih bet ïë jongheh jongheh. nge nudwar, Kat amah-rhen a-ju wïar I courtyard, shake just it severely severely. Although expect tocease niang khing ïē jongheh. Lah tite te da k'tiang dhep nevertheless more-and-more shook it severely. After that then was afraid much rēp Hor. be-a ktiang be, dang āh hi ïē ia nge. mah-rhen hah i-a Although, with fear also, there something was also it to expectation for what Z. ju-wiar u. Te lah-ada harem i-khlïah atoskhana. Teong nge, 'i-ne will-cease it. Then after fella-top chimney. Then said I, this te da-lieh u-Prāi dei-jong-shynnam.' Henle te damte-pong ju-ngem.' then did Godwith-earnestness.' Nowailed was-not thento-sink. Katte ju-ngem hai kluk-ne shapoh te te mah-rhen nge du hah i At-that-(time) then expected I only that it to-subside in wholly inside then dep ïë iam-ne. done it for-all.

For a free translation see under Khassi (Standard).

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN KHASSI

	Englisl	1.		Khas	ssi (Sta	ndard).		Khassi (Ly	ng-ngam).		Is	Thassi	(Synten	g).
l. One .	•	•		. Wei, shi .				Waw, shi		•	Wi, shi	•	•	•
2. Two .	•	•		. År	•	•	,	Ār-re or ā-re			Ar.		•	
3. Three	•	•		. Lāi .	•	•		Lai-re .		•	Lē .			
4. Four .	•	•		. Sāw .	•	•		Sāw-re .			Sō.			
5. Five .	•	*		San .		•	•	San-de .			San		•	•
6. Six .	•	•		· Hinrīw .	•	•	•	Hyrrew-re		•	Ynru		•	•
7. Seven	•	•		Hinniew .		•	•	Hynnju-re			Ynñiaw		•	
8. Eight.	•	•	,	Phrā .	•	•	•	Phrā-re	•		Phrā	•	• ,	
O. Nine .	•	• '	•	Khyndāi	,		٠.	Khondai-re			Kh y ndê	•		
Ten .	•	•	•	Shi-phew	•	•	•	Shi-phu , .	•	•	Shi-phāw	•		
. Twenty	•	•	•	Ār-phew .	•	•	•	Ār-phu .	•	•	Ār-phāw	,	• .	
. Fifty .	•	•	•	San-phew		• •	•	San-phu .		•	San-phäw		•	
. Hundred	•	•	•	Shi-spah .	•	o		Shi-spāh .		. 8	Shi-spah			
. I .	•	٠.	•	Ngā .	•	2	•	Ne	•	. 1	Nga, ō	•	•	
. Of me	•	•	•	Jong ngā	•	٠	-	Jong ne, am ne, a	ım-nam ı	ae, J	ong nga,	δ.		
Mine .	•	•	•	Jong ngā	•	٠	\cdot	Jong ne	•	.]	ong nga		•	
We .	•	•	•	Ngi .	•	•	•	Bïāw, ïāw	•	. 1	, ngi		••	
Of us	•	•	•	Jong ngi		•	•	Jong ïāw, am-nar	n ïāw	. J	ong i .			
Our .	n	•	•	Jong ngi	•	•		Jong ïāw .	•	. J	ongi.	•	•	
Thou .	•	•	•	Mē, fem. phā		•		Ba-mi, mi, mei	•	. M	lē, mi .	•		
Of thee	•	•		Jong mē	•	•		Jong mi, am mi mi.	, am-nai	n Jo	ong mē, m	i.		
Thine	•	•	•	Jong mē .	•	•	J	ong mi.	•	. Jo	ong mē, m	i .	•	•
You .	•	•	•	Phi .	•	•		Phīāw .	•	. Pl	n i .	•		_
Of you	•	•	•	Jong phi	•	•	. J	ong phiaw, nam p	าไกร๊องพ	T-	ng phi .		,	•

AND OTHER MON-KHMER LANGUAGES.

Khassi	(Wār)). 		Palaung (aud other Mön-Khmér Languages). English.
Mi, shi .	•	•		Hle, (in composition, se) . 1. One.
Â			•	Ā (Riang, k-ār) 2. Two.
Lāi .			•	We (Wa, lai) 3. Three.
Zia .		•		Phon 4. Four.
Zan .				Phan (Mon, pa-son) . 5. Five.
Throw .				Taw (<i>Mōn</i> , kā-rao) 6. Six.
Hynthläi		•		Pu 7. Seven.
Нутруа				Ta (Riang, pre-ta) . 8. Eight.
Hynshyāi		s		Tim, 'ntim, (Stieng, kin) 9. Nine.
Shi-phui			•	Kö, se-'kūr 10. Ten.
Ār-phui				A-kūr, (Riang, ār-kall) . 11. Twenty.
Zan-phui				12. Fifty.
Shi-swāh .				U-pai-ya, se-par-yar 13. Hundred.
Ñia, nge, o			•	Ao 14. I.
Jong ñia, etc.				15. Of me.
Jong ñia, etc.				16. Mine.
Ē-i, i	•	•		Yo 17. We.
Jong ē-i .				18. Of us.
Jong ē-i .				19. Our.
Em .	• •			Mai, mi 20. Thou.
Jong em, 'm	•			\$ 21. Of thee.
Jong em, 'm		•		22. Thine.
Ēhi, hi .		•		Pe 23. You.
Jong ēhi		•		24. Of you.

	English			Khassi ((Standa	rd).		Khassi '(Ly	ng-ng	am).		Khassi (Synte	n
25. Your .		•	•	Jong phi				Jong phïāw				Jong phi	•	
26. Не		•	•	σ	•	•		Ju, u-ju .	•			σ		
27. Of him		•	•	Jong u .			•	Jong ju, nam j	u, am	ju		Jong u .		
28. His		•	•	Jong u .	•	•		Jong ju	•	•		Jong n .		
29. They .	•	•		Ki	•	•	•	Kiw .	•	•		Ki.		
30. Of ther	n.	•	•	Jong ki .	•	•		Jong kiw, nam	ki₩		•	Jong ki .	•	
31. Their .	•		•	Jong ki .	•			Jong kiw	•			Jong ki .	•	
32. Hand .	•		•	Ka kti .	•	•	•	Ktei .	•	•		Ka kti .		
33. Foot .	•	•	•	Ka kjat, kyja	t, slaj	at	•	K'jat .	•			Ka kjat, kyjat		
34. Nose .	•	•	•	Ka khmut	•	•	•	Leo-'mut	•			Ka khmut		
35. Eye .	•	•		Ka khmat		•	•	Kh'mat .				Ka khmat	•	
36. Mouth		•	•	Ka shintur			•	Lymor .	•		•	I ktiën .	•	
37. Tooth	•	•	•	Ka bniat	•	•	•	Moiw .	•			Ka l'mien	•	
38. Ear .	•	•	•	Ka shkōr	•	•	•	Lykur .		•	•	Ka shkër	•	
39. Hair .	•	•	•	U shniuh	•		•	Shnjek .	•		•	U shninh	•	
40. Head .	•	•	•	Ka khlih	•	•	٠	Khlih .	•	•	•	I khlih .		
41. Tongue		•	•	U thyllied	•	•	•	Thylloid .	•	•	•	U thyllij		
42. Belly .	•	•	•	Ka kypoh	•	•	•	Khlaw .	•	•	•	U kypoh .		
43. Back .	•	•	•	Ka ingdong	•	•		Phat .	•		٠	I ryngkhih		
44. Iron .	•	•	•	U nar .	•	•		Lymon .	•		•	U nar .	•	
45. Gold .	•	•	•	Ka ksiar .	•	•	•	'Sïar .	•	•	•	I ksiar .	•	
46. Silver	•	•	•	Karupa.	•	•		Rupa ,	•	•	٠	Irupa .	•	
47. Father	•	•	•	U kpa'.	•	•		Pā .	•	•		Ū pa	•	
48. Mother	, •	•	•	Ka kymi.	•	•	•	G'maw, 'bei, ky	bei		•	Kabei.	•	
49. Brother	•	•	•	U para .	•	•	•	Hymmin (elde (younger).	r),	hyn	ıbu	U päïu, bāiu	•	
50. Sister .	•	•	•	Ka para .	•	•		Ditto,	ditto	•		Ka pāīu, bāiu		
51. Man .	•	•		U briw .	•			Breo, kohrang, male).	kora	ng (i.e.	U bru .		

Jong éhi	Khassi	(Wār).		Palauug (and other Mōu-Khmēr Lauguages).	English.
Jong &w . . 27. Of him. Jong &w 28. His. Ei iê . . I, ke-doi (Riang, ku) . Jong ci-iê Jong ci-iê Ka tâi Ka nia U myrkong Ka nia Jan U myrkong Kadong-mu (Mōn, ma) J t'kong Mwe I t'kong . .	Jong ēhi .		•		25. Your.
Jong ēw . .	υ		•	An, (Riang, hu)	26. He
Ei iē . I, ke-doi (Riang, ku) . 29. They. Jong ci-iē .	Jong ēw .		• }	*****	27. Of him.
Jong ci-is	Jong ëw .		•	•••••	28. His.
Jong ei-iè	Ei iē .		•	I, ke-doi (Riang, ku)	29. They.
Ka tāi . <td>Jong ci-ië</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>•••••</td> <td>30. Of them.</td>	Jong ci-ië			•••••	30. Of them.
Ka nïa	Jong ei-ið		•		31. Their.
U myrkong . Kadong-mu (Mon, mu) 34. Nose. Ka māt . Ngai (Mon, mut) . 35. Eye. I t'kong . Mwe . 36. Mouth. Ka l'men . . Rang . . 37. Tooth. Ka terang . . Hsōk . . 38. Ear. U suh-khliahl 40. Head. U khlith 41. Tongue. U 'poh U 'poh .	Ka tāi .			Tai, ka-ba-tai	32. Hand.
Ka māt	Ka nïa .			Jan	33. Foot.
I t'kong	U myrkong			Kadong-mu (Mōn, mu) .	34. Nose.
Ka I'men . Rang	Ka māt .			Ngai (<i>Mōn</i> , mut)	35. Eye.
Ka torang	I t'kong		7	Mwe	36. Mouth.
U suh-khlïah¹ . Hük-ken . 39. Hair. U khlïah . Ken . 40. Head. U khlït . Hsā-tă . 41. Tongue. U 'poh . . Wat (Riang, klung) . 42. Belly. U tympong 43. Back. U nar . </td <td>Ka l'men</td> <td></td> <td>•</td> <td>Rang</td> <td>37. Tooth.</td>	Ka l'men		•	Rang	37. Tooth.
U khliah	Ka tarang			Hsōk	38. Ear.
U khlit	U suh-khlïah ^l		•	Hük-ken	39. Hair.
U 'poh	U khliah		•	Ken	40. Head.
U tympong	U khliīt .		•	Hsā-tă	41. Tongue.
U nar . . . Lhak (Riang, hir) .	U'poh .		•	Wat (Riang, klung) .	42. Belly.
I ksi . <td>U tympong</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>43. Back.</td>	U tympong				43. Back.
I rupa . Rön . . 46. Silver. U pa . Kön (Riang, pa) . 47. Father. Ka māi . Mā (Mon, a-mai) . 48. Mother. U para, u bo (younger) . Pi (elder), wa (younger), bwi (younger). 49. Brother.	U nar .			Lhak (Riang, hir)	44. Iron.
U pa Kön (Riang, pa) 47. Father. Ka māi Mā (Mon, a-mai) 48. Mother. U para, u bo (younger) . Pi (elder), wa (younger), 49. Brother. bwi (younger).	I ksi .			Khyi, kri (<i>Wa</i> , hsari) .	45. Gold
Ka māi Mā (Mon, a-mai) 48. Mother. U para, u bo (younger) . Pi (elder), wa (younger), 49. Brother. bwi (younger).	I rupa .		•	Rön	46. Silver.
Ka māi Mā (Mon, a-mai) 48. Mother. U para, u bo (younger) . Pi (elder), wa (younger), bwi (younger).	U pa .			Kön (Riang, pa)	47. Father.
U para, u bo (younger) . Pi (elder), wa (younger), 49. Brother. bwi (younger).	Kamāi .				48. Mother.
	U para, u bo	(younge		Pi (elder), wa (younger),	49. Brother.
Ka para Pi ipan (elder), wa ipan, 50. Sister.	Ka para .			Pi ipăn (elder), wa ipăn,	50. Sister.
bwi pūn (younger). U juprēw Imai (male), (Riang, ke- 51. Man.	U juprēw	•		bwi pūn (younger). Imai (male), (Riang, ke-	

¹ Lit. 'that which grows on the head'; the Palaung seems to have the same meaning.

Eng	lish.			Kh	ası (8	Standar	d).		Kha	assi (Ly	yng-nga	ьт).		Khas	si (S	ynteng	-).	~
52. Woman	•	•	•	Ka brīw,	, ka k	ynthei	. •		'Rāw-k'	mãw	•	•	•	Ka bru, k	a ky	nthāi	•	•
53. Wife .	•	•		Ka tyngs	B.	•	•		Konthāv	v	•	•		Ka shkāw	7	•	•	
54. Child .		•	•	I khūn	•	•			Khöndīr	ij			•	I khōn		•	•	
55. Son .		•		U khūn	•	•	9		Khōn ko	hrang	g .			U khōn	•	•	•	
56. Daughter	•		•	Ka khūn		•	•		Khōn 'r	āw-k'	māw			Ka khōn			u	
57. Slave.		•	•	U mrāw				•	Mrāw		•		•	U brō	•	•	•	
58. Cultivator	•	•	•	U nongre	p, u	barep			Re-ryn-n	āw	•	•	,	U barep	•			
59. Shepherd	•		•	U nong-ā	ip lar	ıgbrot			U rec-nj	ang-la	ıngbro	t	•	U sharē (one v	who po	ısture	s)
60. God .	•	₩	•	U Blei	•	•		•	Blei or b	rei	•	•		U Blāi	•			
61. Devil .	•	4.6	•	U ksūid		•			Ksoid	•	•	•		$\begin{bmatrix} U & \text{blāi-be} \\ god \end{bmatrix}$.	sih	(i.e.,	wick	ed
62. Sun .	•	4,	•	Ka sngi	•	•	•	٠	Sngei	•	•	•		Ka sagi .		•		
63. Moon .		r		U bynai		•	•	•	B'ni		•	•	•	U b'nāi .			•	
64. Star .	•		•	U khlür	•		•	·	Khlōr	•				Ū khlūr		6		
65. Fire .	•	w	•	Ka ding	•	•	•		Doinj					I dıñ, dinj				٠
66. Water	•	,		Ka üm	•	•			Gūm		•	ć	•	Ka üm .		•	·	
67. House	,			Ka ing	•	•	•		Înj	•			,	I iang .		•	•	
68. Horse.	,			U kulai		•			Gura			·	-	U kulē .				
69. Cow .			•	Ka massi					Masseo		u			Ka massi.		•		п
70. Dog .	•	•	•	U ksew		•		•	Ksü, 'sü					U ksáw .				
71. Cat .		•	•	Ka miaw			•	•	Miāw	•	,			Ka miaw			٠.	•
72. Cock .	•	•		U siar, u	'iar	•		•	'Iar rang	bah				U sïar .				
73. Duck .	•	•		Ka hān	•	•			Tau kiap			J		Ka rapasa			•	
74. Ass .		•		Ka kadda		•	•		Kadda			•		Ka kadda		•		
75. Camel		•	•	Ka ut	•	•	•		Ut, ud	•	4	•		Ka ut .		•	•	0
76. Bird .	•	•	•	Ka sim	•				Sim	•	•	•	,	Ka sim .		•		
77. Go .	•		•	Leit	•				Dih		•			Lāi .			•	
78, Eat .			•	Bām	•	•		•	Bang	•				Bām .		ø		

Khassi (Wār).	Palaung (and other Mön-Khmer Languages).	English.
Ka juprēw, ka hynthāi .	I-păn, (Wa, rapōn) (Kha- mūk, sim-kun), (Mōn, brao).	52. Woman.
Ka khynang	Pyi, (Kha-mūk, tum-kaw).	53. Wife.
î h ün .	I-det, (Kha-mūk, khawn), (inamese, kon).	54. Child.
U hūn	Kawn i-mai	55. Son.
Ka hūu	Kawn i-pan, (Wa, kawn rapōn).	56. Daughter.
U ma		57. Slave.
U wakhih		58. Cultivator.
U sharui	I-hyning-mäk (cowherd) .	59. Shepherd.
U Prāi	Părā, Prā	60. God.
U prāi dheb	Капат	61. Devil.
Ka jungai, ka sh'ngäi .	Se-ngai	62. Sun.
U p'nui	Pa-kyo (Khmēr, phkāy) .	63. Моон.
U khlashmen	Hsa-man, să-main	64. Star.
I sh'men	Lakwai, (Wa , ngo), (Bah - nar , uing).	65. Fire.
Kaām	Em, õm	66. Water.
Isni	Gang, (Wa, nyè), (Mōn, nhyi).	67. House.
U kurui	. Imbyang	68. Horse.
Ka massow	. Mšk, mi (cow), mi-rasū (bull).	69. Cow.
U ksia	. Hsao, ($Mar{o}n$, khla)	70. Dog.
Ka miaw	. A-myao	71. Cat.
U sci • •	. Ior, (Riang, yer rong), (Kha-mūk, yer).	72. Cock.
Ka rapasa	. Pyit (a Shān word) .	73. Duck.
Ka kadda		74. Ass.
Kaut		75. Camel.
Ka ksem	. Hsim, sim	. 76. Bird.
Liā · ·	. Hno, (Riang, lan)	. 77. Gა.
Ва • •	Hawm'	78. Eat.

	Engl	ish.			Khassi ((Standard	d).	Kha	ssi (Lyng-nga	ım).	Khassi (S	lynteng).
79.	Sit .	•	•		Shong .	•		Machong	ğ •		Chong, shong	
80.	Come		•	•	Wan, alle (in	ıter j ecti	ional) .	Nei			Wan, alē (int	$erje{m c}tional)$
81.	Beat			•	Shoh, sympa	t.		Rip			Shoh, bom, sy	mpat .
82.	Stand		•	•	Ïeng .	•		Njeng			Yong .	
83.	Die .	•	•		Ĩāp .	•		Njyn-naj	p, njiap, <i>or</i>	njap .	Ĭāp .	
84.	Give.	•	•		Āi	•		Ai.			E.	
85.	Run .			•	Phet, march			Mahir			Phet .	
86.	Up .	•		•	Ha neng, ha	jrong, s	ha neng	Ta-hynn	yng .		Ha neinj	
87.	Near.		•		Ha jan .	•		Ha j'nga	n .		Hajan .	
ხ8.	Down		•	•	Ha rum, sha	rum		Ha rum			Sha wah .	
89.	Far .	•	•	•	Jing-ngāi	•		J'ng-ngi			J'ngāi .	
9 0.	Befor e	•			Ha khymat,	ha shiw	a.	Ylliang,	ha kh'mat	• ;	Ha phrang	
	Behind	•		•	Ha dīn, sha			Bandon			Ha din .	•
92.	Who.	•	•		Uba (relativ		i? (in-				777	
93,	What	,•			terrogative) Ka ei, aiuh ?	•		Met			Kai.	•
	Why	•		•	.			Raw met	· ·		Ileh .	•
	And.				Bad .			Bad			Ba, haroh	• •
	But .				Hinrei .			37 7			Mei'te	• •
97.		•		•	Lada .			211112		•	Lada .	• •
98.	Yes .							Ha-āw			0	•
99.	No .	•	s		Ēm .					` '	Oho .	• •
100.	Alas	•			-			TT	ngngino		Jā.	•
101,	A father					•		U pa			U pa	•
102.	Of a fathe	er			Jong u kypa			Jong pa,	am na		Jong u 'pa	•
	To a father				Sha u kypa	•			1	he (co	Sha u 'pa	•
	From a fat		•		Na u kypa	•		hy) pa. Nam pa	ormin ha	, 20 (07	Na u 'pa	• , •
	Two father				Ār-ngut ki k	'pa			• if. §.r.n.c.:+ 1	e i b'ra	Ār-ngut ki 'pa	•
	Khasi_AA				0	· · ·		u ngı	ar-ngui	rırhar.	zr-ngut ki 'pa	• •

Khassi (Wār)		Palaung (a	ind other M Languages).	ōn-Khmēi		English.
Shkea .	•		Mong		•		79. Sit.
Wan, alē			De		•	•	80. Come.
Choh, sympat	•		Ma		•	•	81. Beat.
Zeng .	•	•	Jăng		•	•	82. Stand.
Lip .	•		Yam		•	•	83. Die.
Ai.	•						84. Give.
Phet .	•		(Wa, pè	erayè) .	•		85. Run
Nu th'mun	•	•		*****			86. Up.
Ti jan .	•	•	Indăw		•	•	87. Near.
Sha rem	•	•	•	• • • • •			88. Down.
Sh'ngūi .	•	ť	Dong (Bahr	(Mōn, nar, mese, ngai	za-ngo- hanga	ıi),	89. Far.
Ti phrang		•	chhng I-ai	gāy), (Ler	net, sng	ıy).	90. Before.
Di trāi •	•		. I-pan		•	•	91. Behind.
U ba .	•		•	••			92. Who.
Ka ai .			•	•••	•		93. What.
Ai ni .	•	•	•	••••			94. Why.
Ba •	ť	•	•	•••	·•		95. And.
Lah-ē	•	•	•	\$00 • .	• -		96. But.
Nē-mē .		•	•	****	••		97. If.
He-i	•	•	•	••••	•••		98. Yes.
Hoh .	•		•	****	•••		99. No.
O-māi .	•	•	•	***	•••		100. Alas.
U pa .	•	•	•	•••	***		101. A father.
Jong u 'pa		•	•	,41	••		102, Of a father.
Tu u 'pa	•	•	•	161	•••		108. To a father.
Tiu'pa .	•		-	***	400		104. From a father.
Ār-bai i 'ps	Bı •	•	•	. * *			105. Two fathers.
1							Khasi—45

English.	Khassi (Standard).	Khassi (Lyng-ngam).	Khassi (Synteng).
106. Fathers	Ki k'pa	Pa	Ki 'pa
107. Of fathers	Jong ki k'pa	Jong pa	Jong ki 'pa
108. To fathers	Sha ki k'pa	Hanam pa, tuam pa	Sha ki 'pa
109. From fathers	Na ki k'pa	Ат-пат ра	Na ki 'pa
110. A daughter	Ka khūn	Khōn 'rāw-k'māw	Ka khōn
III. Of a daughter	Jong ka khūn	Jong khōn 'rāw-k'māw ,	Jong ka khōn
112. To a daughter	Sha ka khūn	Hanam (or tnam) khōn 'rāw-k'māw	Sha ka khōn
113. From a daughter .	Na ka khūn	Am-nam khōn 'rāw-k'māw	Na ka khōn
114. Two daughters	Ār-ngut ki khūn kynthei .	Ār-ngut khōn 'rāw-k'māw	Ār-ngut ki khōn kynthāi
115. Daughters	Ki khūn kynthoi	Tah khōn 'rāw-k'māw .	Ki khôn kynthãi .
116. Of daughters	Jong ki khũn kynthei .	Jong khōn 'râw-k'māw .	Jong ki khōn kynthâi
117. To daughters	Sha ki khûn kynthei	Hanam (or tnam) khôn 'rāw-k'māw.	Sha ki khōn kynthāi
118. From daughters	Na ki khūn kynthei	Am-nam khōn 'rāw-k'māw .	Na ki khōn kynthāi .
119. A good man	U brīw babhā	Breo re-myrriang ,	U brū babliā
120. Of a good man	Jong u brīw babhā	Jong u breo re-myrriang .	Jong u brū babhā .
121. To a good man	Sha u brīw babhā	Hanam (or tnam) breo remyrriang	Sha u brū babhā .
122. From a good man .	Na u briw babhā	Am-nam breo re-myrriang .	Na u brū babhā .
123. Two good men	Ār-ngut ki brīw babhā .	Ār-ngut (or ā'-ngut) breo re- myrriang	År-ngut ki brū babhā
124. Good men	Ki brīw babhā	U breo re-myrriang	Ki brū babhā
125. Of good men	Jong ki brīw babhā	Jong u breo re-myrriang .	Jong ki brū babhā .
126. To good men	Sha ki brīw babhā	Hanam (or tnam) breo remyrriang	Sha ki brū babhā
127. From good men	Na ki briw babhā	Am-nam breo re-myrriang	Na ki brū babhā
128. A good woman	Ka kynthei babhā	'Rāw-k'māw re-myrriang .	Ka kynthāi ka babhā .
129. A bad boy	U khynnah basniw	Khōndīnj khōn-kohrang re- kyncha	U khynnah basih
130. Good women .	Ki kynthei babhā	'Rāw-k'māw re-myrriang	Ki kynthāi ki babhā
131. A bad girl	Ka khynnah basniw .	Khōndīnj 'rāw-k'māw re- kyncha	Ka khynnah ka basih
132. Good	Babhā .		Babhā

Khassi (Wār).	Palaung (and other Mön-Khmër Languages).	English.
I'pa		106. Fathers.
Jong i 'pa		107. Of fathers.
Tui'pa		108. To fathers.
Tii'pa	••••	109. From fathers.
Kahūn	******	110. A daughter.
Jong ka hūn		111. Of a daughter.
Tu ka hūn		112. To a daughter.
Ti ka hūn	****	113. From a daughter.
Ār-bāi i hūn hynthāi .		114. Two daughters.
I hūn hynthāi		115. Daughters.
Jong i hūn hynthāi	.	116. Of daughters.
Tu i hûn hynthãi		117. To daughters.
Ti i hūn hynthāi		118. From daughters.
U juprēw ryum	301.078	119. A good man.
Jong u juprēw ryum .		120. Of a good man.
Tu u juprēw u wa-ryum .	*19.48*	121. To a good man.
Ti u juprēw u wa-ryum .	****	122. From a good man.
Ār-bāi ki juprēw ki wa-ryum	••••	123. Two good men.
I juprēw ryum		124. Good men.
Jong i juprēw ryum	*****	125. Of good men.
Tu i juprēw ryum	,,,,,,	126. To good men.
Ti i juprēw ryum		127. From good men.
Ka hynthāi ka wa-ryum .		128. A good woman.
U hymbo u wa-hymman .	291764	129 A bad boy.
I hynthäi i wa-ryum	******	130 Good women
Ka hymbo ka hymman .	***	131. A bad girl.
Ryum	111.277	132. Good.

En_lie	sh.	,		Khassi (Standard)). 		Khassi (Lyng-ngam),	Khassı (Synten	g).	_
133. Better	•	•		Kham bhā .	•	•	Mai-myrriang	Rap bhā	•	
134. Best .				Bhā tam	•	•	U re-myrriang khynnang .	Bhā duh	•	
135. High	•	•	•	Jerong			J'rong	Jrong	•	
136. Higher			•	Kham jerong	ſ		Mai j'rong	Rap jrong .	•	
137. Highest	,	•	٥	Jerong tam .			U re-j'rong khynnang .	Jrong duh .	•	
138. A horse	•		•	U kulai	•		Gura korang	U kulē	•	
139. A mare	,	•	•	Ka kulai .	•	•	Gura konthāw	Ka kulē		
140. Horses	,		•	Ki kulai .	•	•	Gura korang met	Ki kulē	•	
141. Mares	•		•	Ki kulai kynthei		•	Gura konthāw mei	Ki kulē kynthāi	•	
142. A bull		•	•	U massi shinrang	•		Masseo kymbah	U massi shinrang		
143. A cow	,	•		Ka massi kynthei	•		Masseo konthāw	Ka massi kynthāi	•	
144. Bulls .		•		Ki massi shinrang .	•		Masseo kymbah met	Ki massi shinrang	•	
145. Cows .		•	•	Ki massi kynthei	•	-	Masseo konthāw met .	Ki massi kynthāi	•	
146. A dog .		•		U ksew	•		'Sū korang	U ksāw	•	
147. A bitch .		•		Ka ksew	•	•	'Sű konthāw	Ka ksāw	•	
148. Dogs		•	•	Kiksew	•		'Sũ korang met	Ki ksāw	•	
149. Bitches .		•	-	Ki ksew kynthei	•		'Sũ konthãw met	Ki ksāw kynthāi	•	1
150. A he goat .		•	•	U blang	•		'Lang korang	U blang	•	
151. A female go	at	•	•	Ka blang.	•	•	'Lang konthāw	Ka blang .	•	•
152. Goats .		•	•	Ki blang .	•	•	'Lang met	Ki blang	••	•
153. A male deer	?	•	•	U bythong (sambha skei (barking deer).	r), 1	u	Skāw korang (barking-deer)	U bythong .	•	
154. A female de	er	•	•	Ka bythong .	•	•	Skāw konthāw	Ka bythong		•
155. Deer.	•	•		Ki bythong .	•	•	Skāw	Bythong	•	•
156. I am.	•	•	•	Nga long	•	•	Ne re	Nga man		•
157. Thou art	•	•	•	Me long	•	•	Mire	Mē man		•
158. He is	•	•	•	U long	•		U-ju re	U man		•
159. We are	•	•	•	Ngi long	7	•	Bïāw re	Ngi man .	•	•

Khassi (Wār)).	Palaung (and other Mön-Khmer Languages).	English,
Rap ryum .	•		133. Better.
Ryum tam, barē	• ,		134. Best.
Nu-karong .	• ,		135. High.
Rap karong .		•••••	136. Higher.
Karong tam, barē			137. Highest.
U kurui			138. A horse.
Ka kurui.	٠.	401 ***	139. A mare,
I kurui	• •		140. Horses.
I kurui hynthäi			141. Mares.
U massow .	• •		142. A bull.
Ka massow .		,,,,,,	143. A cow.
I massow tyrmāi			144. Bulls.
I massow hynthāi		*****	145. Cows.
U ksīa	s •		146. A dog.
Ka ksia		400.00	147. A bitch.
I ksia			148. Dogs.
I ksïa hynthäi .	4 •		149. Bitches.
σ /	, .	Be (a goat)	150. A he goat.
Ka blang .		•••	151. A female goat.
I blang			152. Goats.
U bythong .		Tüng (a deer)	153. A male deer.
Ka bythong .			154. A female deer.
Bythong .		*****	155. Deer.
Aman-o		******	156. I am.
Aman-'m .			157. Thou art.
Aman-u			158. He is.
Ē-i aman-i .	6 1		159. We are.

160. You are	Phi long		(
161. They are	•	Phiāw re	Phi man
	Ki long	Kiw re	Kiman
162. I was	Nga la long	Ne im let	Em hiō
163. Thou wast	Me la long	Mei'm let, mi'm let	Em hi mi ,
164. He was	U la long	U-ju im let	Em hi u
165. We were	Ngi la long	Bïāw im let	Emhii
166. You were	Phi la long	Phïāw im let	Man hi phi
167. They were	Ki la long	Kiw im let	Man hi ki
168. Be	Long	Meit	Man, em
169. To be	Ba'n long	Hat meit	U (ia) em
170. Being	Da long, ba long	[Im] (?), [dang im] (?) .	Dei wa
171. Having been	Ynda la long, haba la long	[Lah im let] (?)	Habada
172. I may be	Nga lah ba'n long	Ne lah meit myrriang let .	Jan em hi ō
173. I shall be	Nga'n long		U em 5
174. I should be	Ka dei ba nga'n long .	Ne dāw ban long	Em kam
175. Beat	Shoh	Rip	Sympat
176. To beat	Ba'n shoh	Rip munjia	U sympat
177. Beating	Da shoh, ba shoh		Ba sympat
178. Having beaten	Ynda la shoh, haba la shoh	Lah rip let	Da dep sympat
179. I beat	Nga shoh	Ne rip	Wa sympat o
180. Thou beatest	Me shoh	Mirip	Wa sympat mi
181. He beats	U shoh	U-ju rip	Wa sympat u
182. We beat	Ngi shoh	Rip biāw	Wa sympat i
183. You beat	Phi shoh	Rip phïāw	Wa sympat phi
184. They beat	Ki shoh	Rip kiw	Wa sympat ki
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Nga la shoh	Ne rip let	Da bom ō
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense). Khasi-50	Me la shoh	Mi rip let	Da dep bom mi

Khassi (Wãr).		Palaung (and other Mön-Khmör Languages).	English.
Ēhi aman-hi .			160. You are,
Aman-ïe .			161. They are.
Ah-he-nge .		•••••	162. I was.
Ah'm-y .			163. Thou wast.
Ah ha u			164. He was.
Ah hii			165. We were.
Ah hi hai .			166. You were.
Ah hi iē			167, They were.
Man, ah	•	·· ···	168. Be.
Ju man or ju ah		•••••	169. To be.
De-ia		·	170. Being.
Kata da .			171. Having been.
Eh nge ju ah .			172. I may be.
Juaho			173. I shall be.
Ah kam ju-man			174. I should be.
Sympat			175. Beat.
Ju sympat .			176. To beat.
A sympat .		10-22	177. Beating.
Da dep sympat			178. Having beaten.
A sympat ō .			179. I beat.
A sympat'm			180. Thou beatest.
A sympat u .			181. He beats.
A sympat i .		, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	182. We beat.
A sympat hi .		,	183. You beat.
A sympat-ïe			184. They beat.
Da choh nge .	•		185. I beat (Past Tense).
Da dep choh'm			186. Thou beatest (Pass Tense).
			Khasi—51 н 2

English.	Khassi (Standard).	Khassi (Lyng-ngam).	Khassi (Synteng).
187. He beat (Past Tense).	U la shoh	U-ju rip let	Da bom u
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Ngi la shoh	Bıāw rip let	Da bom i
189. You beat (Past Tense).	Phi la shoh	Phïāw rip let	Da bom phi
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Ki la shoh	Kiw rip let	Da bom ki
191. I am beating	Nga dang shoh	Ne dang rip	Dang sympat o
192. 1 was beating	Nga la dang shoh	Ne dang rip nan	Haba dang sympat ō
193. I had beaten	Nga la lah shoh	Ne rip let	Da dep sympat ō
194. I may beat	Nga lah ba'n shoh	Ne rip jam	Ie hi ō u sympat
195. I shall beat	Nga-'n (ngan) shoh	Ne rynip	U sympat o
196. Thou wilt beat	Me'n shoh	Ma-mi rip	U bom mi
197. He will beat	U'n shoh	U-ju rynip, holoh rynip .	U bom u
198. We shall beat	Ngi'n shoh	Rip bïāw, ïāw rynip	U bom i
199. You will beat	Phi'n shoh	Phïāw rip	U bom phi
200. They will beat	Ki'n shoh	Kiw rynip	U bom ki
201. I should beat	Ka dei ba nga'n shoh .	Ne daw rynip	Em kam u sympat ō
202. I am beaten	Dang la shoh ia nga, .	Dang rip let s'ne	Da shoh iā nga
203. I was beaten	La shoh ia nga	Lah rip lot s'ne	Da dep shoh ia nga
204. I shall be beaten .	Yn shoh ia nga	Ne shah rynip	Da u sholi ia nga
205. I go	Nga leit	Ne dynih (? I shall go) .	Walaio
206. Thou goest	Me leit	Mi dynih	Walāi mi
207. He goes	U leit	U-ju dynih	Walāiu
208. We go	Ngi leít	Bïāw dynih	Walaii
209. You go	Phi leit	Phiāw dynih	Wa lāi phi
210. They go	Ki leit	Kiw dynih	Walāi ki
211. I went	Nga la leit	Ne lah dih let	Da dep lài o
212. Thou wentest	Me la leit	Mi lah dih let	Da dop lāí mi
213. He went	U la leit	U-ju lah dih let	Da dep lāi u

Kbassi (Wār),		Palaung (and other Mön-Khmë) Languages).	English.
Da choh u	•		187. He beat (Past Tense).
Da choh i	•	****	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Da choh hi	•		189. You beat (Past Tense).
Da choh iē			190. They beat (Past Tense).
Adang sympat nge .	•	···	191. I am beating.
Ti adang sympat nge			192. I was beating.
Da dep sympat nge .	•		193. I had beaten.
Eh nge ju sympat .	•	1	194 I may beat.
Ju sympat nge .	•	***	195. I shall beat.
A ju choh'm	•		196. Thou wilt beat.
A ju choh u		·····	197. He will beat.
Ju choh i . ,			198. We shall beat.
Ju choh hi	•	200719	199. You will beat.
Ju choh iē			200. They will beat.
Ah kam ju sympat nge	•		201. I should beat.
Da sympat ha ñia .	•	······	202. I am beaten.
Da dep shoh ha ñia .	•	•••••	203. I was beaten.
Dang ju shoh ha ñia .	•	·····	204. I shall be beaten.
A liā nge			205. I go.
A liā'm .	•		206. Thou goest.
A lia u	•		207. He goes.
Aliai		••	208. We go.
A liā hi		*****	209. You go.
A liā iē	•	***	210. They go.
Da liā nge		,,,,, ,	211. I went.
Da liā'm			212. Thou wentest.
Da liā u		,**	213. He went.

Eaglish.	Khassi (Standard).	Khassi (Lyng-ngam).	Khassi (Synteng).
214. We went	Ngi la leit	Bïāw lah dih let	Da lāi ī
215. You went	Phi la leit	Phïāw lah dih let	Da lāi phi
216. They went	Ki la leit	Kiw lah dih let	Da lāi ki
217. Go	Leit	Dih	Lāi
218. Going	Da leit	Dang dih	Dang lãi
219. Gone	La lah leit	Lah dih	Da lāi
220. What is your name? .	Ka-ci ka kyrteng jong phi?	At iat s'mi?	I i pyrtuit mi
221. How old is this horse?	U don katno snem une u kulai?	Tymmin katnet let uni u gura?	Katwon i yrta uni u kulē .
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Ka jing-ngāi katno nangne sha Kashmir?	J'ng-ngi iet-net thnim- amni iat Kashmir ?	Katwon ba jing-ngāi neini ha Kashmir?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Katno ngut ki khūn shiu- rang ki ia don ha ing u kypa jong phi?	Jym-met ngut u khōn korang ha inj jong u pa am-mi?	Katnu ngut ki khôn shin- rang ba em ha iung u 'pa mi ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Nga dang la iaid jing-ngāi eh mynta ka sngi.	No lah dih to j'ng-ngi hode sngci ni.	Yne te da jing-ngāi sih ba lāi ō.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	U khūn jong u kyn-ngi jong nga u shong kurim ia ka para jong u.	U khôn jong anang am-no shong konthāw se hymbu am-ju.	
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	Ha i îng don ka jin jong u kulai lih.	Ha inj im jin am gura lih .	Ha iung em ka jin u kulë balih.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Buh ka jin halor ka ing- dong jong u.	Byk jin ha phat jong ju .	Buh ka jin ha ryngkhi u .
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Nga la shoh būn dīng ia u khūn jong u.	Ne rip let se u khōn jong ju būn thāp let.	Da shoh ö u khön u bun dein.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	U āp massi ha khlīh u lūm	U-ju dang pynbang u phlang so jing-rynnei ha pyndeng löm.	Share massi u ha j'rong lūm
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	U dang shong halor u kulai hapoh utai u dīng.	U-ju dang chong gura ha rum diang.	Shong u ha j'rong u kulë hapoh ute u dein.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	U para jong u kham jerong ia la ka para.	Hymbu khōn korang jong ju bad mai j'rong se 'rāw- k'māw hymbu am-ju.	U paiu u dang rap jrong u ia ka paiu u.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Ka dör jong katai ka long ar phiah.	Ka dor jong katei long ārpīah.	I dor itu är phïah
233. My father lives in that small house.	U kypa jong nga u shong ha itai i ing.	Pa am-ne chong ha tei inj dohdit.	U 'pāōshong u ha i te i khian iung.
234. Give this rupee to him.	Āi kane ka tyngka ha u .	Ai tangka-nih he ju	E kani ka tyngka ha u .
Khasi 54	1		

Khassi (Wâr).	Palaung (and other Mön-Khmër Languages).	English.
Da liā i	111.111	214. We went.
Da liā hi	•••••	215. You went.
Da liā iē	*****	216. They went.
Liā	•••••	217. Go.
Dang liā	***	218. Going.
Dep liā	•••••	219. Gone.
I ai i tawiang'm	••• •••	220. What is your name?
Shi hymbāw i yrta une u kruui.	******	221. How old is this horse f
Katüiah shngui tine tu Kashmir?		222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Shi hymbāw bai i hūn tyrmai a ah ti sni u pa'm?	*** ***	223. How many sons are there in your father's house.
Dang ie da sh'ngūi dhep ie a lie nge.		224. I have walked a long way to-day.
U hŭn u ñew nge shke phrāi u ti ka para u.		225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Ti sni ah ka jin u kurui slang.	·····	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
Tai ka jin ti tympong u .	••	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Da shoh ō u hūn u bon ot ie.	•••••	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
A sharui massow u nuknai p'deng.		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Shkia u tiknai kurui ti poh ute u twïa.		230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Rap karong bare u para u ha ka para u.		231. His brother is taller than his sister.
I dör ile a'phïah	******	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
U'pa o skhia u ti te i hūn sni.		233. My father lives in that small house.
Ai kane ka tyngka ti-ēw	****	234. Give this rupee to him.

Euglish,	Khas-i (Standard).	Khassi (Lyng-ngam).	Khassi (Syntong).
235. Take those rupees from him.	Shim ia kito ki tyngka na u	Thom tangka am-nam ju-tu	Him noh kitu ki tyngka na u.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Shoh bhā ia u, bad teh ia de u da u tyllai.	Rip dam riang se ju, bad khōm se ju ba lyng k'nāo.	Sympat u haha jem hop, te khum wot u da u tyllē.
237. Draw water from the well.	Tong ūm na ka pukri¹ .	Tong gũm am 'ũm-thlëō .	Tong um na thlu-um
238. Walk before me .	Nang iāid haphrang jong nga.	Dih hih-ylliang āmb'-ne .	Lāi ha phrang ō
239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?	U khynnah jong no u ba bud nadin jong phi?	U khōn-dīnj jong iak wan ha bandon am-phïāw?	U jong u i u khynnah u wa bud nadin mi?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Na no phi la thied ia kata ?	Am-net phiāw thoh ukydu?	Nci-ī thied phi ka tu? .
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Na uba shong dukan sha shnong.	Am chong dukhan ha j'nong	Na u badai dukān na shnong.
	•		
	,		

Wells are not used in the Khasi Hills—pukri is Bengali and means 'tank'. The words for well in the following columns ('ūm-thleō thlu-um, khlow-am) mean water-hole and correspond to a Standard thliw-um, which is not however in use.

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Khassi (Wār).	Palaung (and other Mön-Khmēr Languages).	English.
Them noh ite i tyngka ti-ēw.	•••••	235. Take those rupees from him.
Sympat ëw te ej em u phlir te kdoh bed ëw da u tarui.	·	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Puh am ti khlow-am ,	*****	237. Draw water from the well,
Liā ti phrang nge		238, Walk before me.
U hymbo kiai u le abeh di trai'm ?		239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?
Ti kiai kti hi ei-ië ile ,	1 00 004	240. From whom did you buy that?
Ti u adui dukan ti shnong		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.
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		Khasi—57

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

The Siamese-Chinese family of Indo-Chinese languages includes Tai, Karen, and Chinese. Of these, Tai is the only one which falls within the limits of the present Survey. Karen is spoken in Burma, and Chinese is not a vernacular of British India.

Tai is a group of languages, including Siamese and Lao of Siam, Lü and Khün of the trans-Salwin Shān States, Shān of Burma and Yün-nan, and Āhom, Khāmtī, and other dialects of Assam. As the languages of Burma do not form a part of our present inquiries, the Assam Tai languages are the only ones which will be considered in detail in the following pages.

TAI GROUP.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The Tai or Shām languages all belong to the Samese-Chinese family of the Indo-Chinese forms of speech. They hence show many points of contact with Chinese.

The signification of the word 'Tai', which is used by all branches of the Shāms except the Siamese, is unknown. The Siamese change the first letter to Th, pronouncing the word 'Thai' and giving it the meaning of 'free'. This appears to be a modification of the original word to commemorate some prominent event in their early history. The word 'Siam' is most probably an Anglicism of the Portuguese or Italian 'Sciam', which is an attempt to write 'Shām'. The origin of the word 'Shām' or, as the Burmese pronounce it, 'Shān' itself is as yet an unexplained riddle. I shall henceforth employ the Burmese spelling of the name.

The Tai¹ race, in its different branches, is beyond all question the most widely spread of any in the Indo-Chinese Peninsula and even in parts beyond the Peninsula, and it is certainly the most numerous. Its members are to be found from Assam to far into the Chinese province of Kwang-si and from Bangkok to the interior of Yün-nan. Perhaps they extend even further. As will be seen, the various forms of languages spoken by them fall into two closely connected groups, a Northern and a Southern. The former includes Khāmtī, Chinese Shān, and Burmese Shān, together with the ancient Āhom language now extinct; and the latter includes Lao and Siamese. They have seven distinct forms of written character—the Āhom, the Cis-Salwin Shān, the Khāmtī, and the Tai Mau (Chinese Shān), the Lü and Khün (trans-Salwin Shāns), the Lao, and the Siamese.

As a rule the languages of each group are mutually comprehensible amongst themselves, but the two groups differ somewhat widely. At the same time Ahom (which is Northern) contains many forms which have been lost in the modern languages of the group, but which still survive in Siamese (which is Southern). The greatest bar to mutual intelligence is said to be that the tones of the same word in different languages do not always correspond.

South-Western China was the original home of the Tai people, or rather was the region where they attained to a marked separate development as a people. From thence they migrated into Upper Burma. According to Dr. Cushing, these migrations began about two thousand years ago. Probably the first swarms were small and were due rather to restlessness of character than to exterior force. Later, however, larger and more important migrations were undoubtedly due to the pressure of Chinese invasion and conquest. A great wave of Tai migration descended in the sixth century of our era from the mountains of Southern Yün-nan into the Nām Mau or Shweli Valley and the adjacent regions, and through it that valley became the centre of Shān political power. The early history of the Shāns in Burma is obscure. A powerful kingdom grew up called Müng Mau Löng. Its capital was originally Sè Lan, about thirteen miles east of the modern

¹ Much of what follows is based on Messrs. Scott and Hardiman's Gazettzer of Upper Burma and the Shan States, Rangoon, 1900.

60 TAI GROUP.

Nām Khām on the Shweli, but in 1204 A.D. was moved to the present Müng Mau.¹ From the Nām Mau the Shāns spread south-east over the present Shān States, north into the present Khāmtī region, and west of the Irrawaddy into all the country lying between it, the Chindwin, and Assam. Centuries later they overran and conquered Assam itself. Not only does tradition assert that these Shāns of Upper Burma are the oldest branch of the Tai family, but they are always spoken of by other branches as the *Tai Long*, or Great Tai, while the other branches call themselves *Tai Noi*, or Little Tai.

These earliest settlers and other parties from Yün-nan gradually pressed southwards, but the process was slow. It was not until the fourteenth century of our era that the Siamese Tai established themselves in the great delta of the Mènām, between Cambodia and the Mön country.

The power of the Burmese Shāns reached its climax in the closing years of the thirteenth century, and thereafter gradually decayed. The Siamese and Lao dependencies became a separate kingdom under the suzerainty of Ayuthia, the old capital of Siam. Wars with Burma and China were frequent and the invasions of the Chinese caused great loss. At the commencement of the seventeenth century Shān history merges into Burmese history, and the Shān principalities, though they were always restive and given to frequent rebellions and to intestine wars, never succeeded in throwing off the yoke of the Burmans. Henceforth, the Shāns must be considered under four sections.

These are:—(1) the South-Eastern Shāns; (2) the South-Western Shāns; (3) the North-Eastern Shāns; and (4) the North-Western Shāns.

- (1) The South-Eastern Shāns include most of those settled east of the Salwin. Amongst them are the Siamese, the Lao, and the Lü and Khün. Less subject to Burmese control, they have been more favourably circumstanced for preserving their national characteristics. Consequently, both in dialect and written character, the difference between the Tai east and west of the Salwin is very marked, much more so than between the Southern and Northern Shāns of the Irrawaddy basin.
- (2) The South-Western Shans are those occupying the Southern Shan States. The Tai came there much later than they did to the northern portion of the country occupied by them. They also came much earlier under the influence of the Burmese. They need not occupy us further.
- (3) The North-Eastern Shāns are what are generally known as Chinese Shāns or Tai Mau. They occupy the part of Yün-nan which bulges westwards towards the Irrawaddy. The bulk of them are Chinese subjects. The frontier line between them and the North-Western Shāns may be taken as the River Shweli, and practically bisects the old Mau Shān kingdom.
- (4) The North-Western and the North-Eastern Shāns may together be called the Northern Shāns. There are a few dialectic differences between the forms of speech used by the Northern and by the South-Western Shāns, but the language is practically the same. The North-Western Shans are most directly connected with the present inquiry, as from them came the Shāns of Assam, with whom alone this Survey immediately deals. They are spread over the North of Burma proper from Manipur and Assam to Bhamo. They were completely subjugated by the Burmese, and have become

¹ All these places, except Sè Lan, will be found on plate 30 of Constable's Hand Atlas of India. Mung Mau (written 'Maingmaw') will be found exactly on the 24th parallel of latitude. The Shweli and Nam Kham (written 'Namkam') will be found just below it.

largely assimilated to them. They have also suffered much from the attacks of the Kachins. These would have finished what the Burmese began if it had not been for the British annexation, and the North-Western Shāns would have disappeared as completely as the Āhoms in Assam. Shāns are still found for a hundred miles or so north of Müng Kâng (Mogaung), but their villages are few in number, and most of the Tai have fled before Burman oppression and Kachin invasion. Among them we must mention the Khāmtīs, whose home in Upper Burma is still practically unexplored, and about whom little is known. British influence has not yet been directly established. There are a couple of small Khāmtī States along the upper course of the Chindwin near the Manipur frontier, named Shâng-shüp and Singkaling, and there is a larger settlement close to the north-east corner of Assam, beyond the Lakhimpur frontier. The migration of the Khāmtīs into Assam will be dealt with subsequently.¹

We are now in a position to trace the entry of the Tai into Assam. The Linguistic Survey does not extend to Burma, and hence all that precedes is only introductory to the remarks on the real subject of investigation. The earliest Tai immigrants into Assam were the Āhoms, of whom I take the following account (with a few verbal alterations) from Mr. Gait's Report on the Census of Assam for 1891, pp. 280 and ff.:—

The Ahoms are the descendants of those Shans who, under the leadership of Chukapha, crossed the Patkoi about 1228 A.D. (or just about the time when Kublai Kaan was establishing his power in China), and entered the upper portion of the province, to which they have given their name.2 The Ahoms were not apparently a very large tribe, and they consequently took some time to consolidate their power in Upper Assam. They were engaged for several hundred years in conflicts with the Chutiyas and Kacharis, and it was not till 1540 A.D. that they finally overthrew the latter, and established their rule as far as the Kallang. The power of the Chutiyas had been broken, and their king slain, some forty years earlier. In 1562 A.D., the Koch king, Nar Nārāyan, who was then at the zenith of his power, invaded their territory, and in the following year he inflicted a decisive defeat on them and sacked their capital. Subsequently, the Koch kingdom was divided into two parts, and as its power declined, that of the Ahoms increased, and the Rajas of Jaintia, Dimarua, and others, who had formerly been feudatories of Biswa Singh, acknowledged the suzerainty of the Ahoms. The Musalmans on several occasions invaded their country, but never succeeded in permanently annexing it. A Pathān named Turbuk led an army as far as Kollabar in 1506, and defeated the Ahoms there, but was in his turn beaten and chased as far as the Karatōyā. The next invasion was led by Saiyad Babakar and Satrajit in 1627, but was equally unsuccessful. Their army was cut up, and the Ahoms established their sway as far as Gauhati. In 1663 A.D. Mir Jumla invaded the country with a large army, and after some fighting took the capital. The Ahom Raja fied eastwards, and worried the Musalmans by a constant guerilla warfare during the rains. This, together with the difficulty of obtaining supplies, the extreme unhealthiness of the climate, and the consequent heavy mortality among his troops, who threatened to mutiny, made

¹ For further information regarding the Tai in Upper Burma, the reader is referred to the admirable monograph on the Shan States and the Tai in Vol. i, Pt. i, pp. 187 and ff. of the Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States already referred to. Nearly the whole of what precedes is made up of quotations from it, and can claim no originality.

Many different derivations of the name of the province have been suggested, and some of these ignore the undoubted fact stated above, viz., that the country derives its name from the Ahoms, and not the Ahoms from the country. The old name for the country conquered by the Ahoms was Saumarpīth. Prior to the advent of these Shāns, the term Assam or Ahom was unknown, and when it is first met with, it is found as the designation by which they were known to the people of the West. Thus, in the manuscript Purushnāmeh of Rājā Lakhi Nārāyan Kuar of Hauli Mohanpur, we find it stated that Nar Nārāyan took an army to attack "Asam," that "Asam" fied, eventually became tributary, etc. So also in the Pādishāhnāmeh it is stated that "Asam" borders on "Hājo" (Kamrup and Goalpara) and refers to the people of the country as Assamese. In Fathiya i 'Ibriyah it is stated that the inhabitants belong to two races, the Assamese and the Kulita (Kalitā). There can, I think, be no doubt that the word was first applied to the Āhoms, and subsequently to the country they conquered. Its use was afterwards extended by us and made to include the whole of the Brahmaputra Valley, and when the Province, as now constituted, was formed in 1874, the word was given a still more extended meaning, and now stands for the whole of the Chief Commissionership, including the Surma Valley and Hill Districts.

How the name came to be applied to the tribe is still unknown. The explanation usually offered, that they are called 'A-sama' (the Sanskrit word meaning 'peerless') by the Morāns and Borāhīs, whom they conquered, on account of their skill in ruling, is based on the assumption that these tribes had abandoned their own Indo-Chinese dialects more than eight hundred years ago, an assumption which is clearly erroneous. [According to some, the last syllable of Āsām is simply 'Shām' or 'Shān.' In that case 'Āhom' would be an Assamese corruption of 'Āsām'.—G. A. G.]

62 , TAI GROUP.

Mîr Jumla glad to patch up a peace, which he did, and retreated rapidly to Bongal, where he died shortly afterwards. The Ahoms then again took Gauhati, and made the Koch kings of Mangaldai and Beltola their tributaries. They defeated another Musalman army led by Raja Ram Singh, and extended their boundary to the Monass. The Ahoms were then at the height of their power; all the minor rulers of the country acknowledged their supremacy, and even the Daflas, Miris, and other hill tribes desisted from raiding on their subjects. But even then the decline was at hand. They had for some time hankered after Hinduism, and the Rajas had for years been in the habit of taking a Hindu as well as a Shan name. Eventually Rudra Singh, alias Chukrungphā, who became king in 1695, resolved to make a public prefession of Hinduism. He was too proud to become the disciple of a subject, and so sent for Krishna-ram Bhatṭāchārjya, a Śākta Gosain of Nadiā. The Gosain came, but the Rājā hesitated to take the final step, and died in 1714 while still unconverted. His son Sib Singh succeeded him, and became a disciple of Krishna-ram, who was allowed to occupy the temple of Kāmākhyā. In his reign the seeds of future dissension were sown by the persecution of the Moamarias, while the pride of race, which had hitherto sustained the Ahoms, began to disappear, and those who had failed to embrace Hinduism were looked upon as a separate and lower class, instead of being respected as members of the ruling tribe. At the same time, their habits began to change, and "instead of being like barbarians but mighty Kshattriyas, they became, like Brāhmans, powerful in talk only." Patriotic feeling soon disappeared, and the country was filled with dissensions, chief amongst which was the rebellion of the Moamarias, which was followed by the revolt of the Koch kings of Darrang. Captain Welsh was deputed by Lord Cornwallis to help the King Gauri-nath Singh, who was then being besieged at Gauhati, and with his aid he was once more freed from his enemies. At this juncture, Sir John Shore succeeded to the Governor-Generalship, and one of his first acts was to recall Welsh (1794 A.D.) after whose departure the country was given again over to anarchy. The aid of the Burmese was then invoked (1816 A.D.) and the latter remained in the country until 1824, when they were driven out by our troops, and the country was annexed.

The Ahoms have left at least two important legacies to Assam, the sense of the importance of history, and the system of administration. The former will be briefly dealt with when I treat of the literatures of the Tai languages. I base the following account of the system of Ahom administration on what we are told in the Imperial Gazetteer of India.

It was not the soil, so much as the cultivators of the soil, that were regarded as the property of the Ahom State. The entire scheme of administration was based upon the obligation of personal service, due from every individual. Each male inhabitant above the age of sixteen years was denominated a pāik, and was enlisted as a member of a vast army of public servants. Three $p\bar{a}iks$ made up a got, and one $p\bar{a}ik$ from each gotwas, in theory, always on duty. A larger division, called a khel, consisted of twenty gols, at the head of which was a bara. Over each hundred gots was a saikya and over each thousand gots a hazārī. The whole population, thus classified into regiments and brigades, was ready to take the field on the shortest notice. But this system was not only used for military purposes; it supplied also the machinery by which public works were conducted, and the revenue raised. Every paik was liable to render personal service to the Rājā, or to pay a poll-tax if his attendance was not required. The $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom princes were efficient administrators, but hard taskmasters. It was by the pāik organization that they were able to repel the Muhammadan invaders, and to construct those great public works still scattered throughout the Province in the form of embankments and tanks. But the memory of this system of forced labour has sunk so deep into the minds of the native population, that at the present day it is reckoned a badge of servitude to accept employment in public works. Our civil officers find it very difficult to attract labour even by high wages.

The change of the speech of the Āhoms into Assamese can be very clearly traced. Their earlier Āhom copper-plate inscriptions were in the Āhom language and character. Next they appear in a biglot form, and finally in Assamese or Sanskrit. When the kings

began to take Hindū officials the court language at first continued to be Āhom, but it was gradually supplanted by Assamese, and now Āhom is known by only a few priests.

The following account of the Khāmtīs is based on the late Mr. E. Stack's note on pages 84 and ff. of the Census Report of Assam for 1881, on Mr. Gait's note on page 283 of the similar report for 1891, and on Captain P. R. Gurdon's article *On the Khāmtīs*, in Volume xxvii(1895) of the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, pages 157 and ff.

The Khāmtīs were originally a North Shān tribe whose head-quarters appear to have been round Müng Kâng (Mogaung) in Upper Burma. Müng Kâng was the last of the Northern Shan States (commonly called the kingdom of Pong) to maintain a condition of semi-independence, and was finally conquered by the Burmese King Alomphra in the middle of the eighteenth century. After the capture of Müng Kång a number of Khāmtīs migrated north, and settled in a valley high up the Irrawaddy in latitude 27° and 28° north, eastwards of the frontier of Lakhimpur. This country was known to the Assamese as Bor Khāmtī or Great Khāmtī Land. Captain Wilcox visited it in 1826, and found the Khāmtīs living in the midst of an alien population, the descendants of races whom their ancestors had subjugated. Their kinsmen, the Ahoms, had long been settled in Eastern Assam, and gave them permission to establish themselves on the Tengapani River. Before long they rose against the Ahom king, and ejected the Governor of Sadiya, the Khāmtī chief taking his place. Being unable to oust him, the Ahoms recognised the latter as governing on their behalf. This occurred early in the nineteenth century. During his rule the Khāmtīs reduced the local Assamese to slavery, and it is probably owing to the discontent caused by our releasing these slaves that they rebelled in 1839 A.D. They succeeded in surprising the Sadiya garrison, and in murdering Colonel White, who was in command there, but were eventually defeated and scattered about the country. During the following year many of them returned to their former home in Bor Khāmtī, while the remainder were divided into four parties and settled in different parts of the Lakhimpur District. In 1850 a fresh colony, numbering three to four hundred people, came and settled in Assam. In 1891, the total number of Khāmtīs in the Province was 3,040. They are Buddhists, and are far more civilised than most of the

I am indebted to Mr. Gait for the following details regarding the ousting of the Āhom language by Assamese. Brāhmans began to obtain office at the Āhom court, chiefly as katakis or envoys, early in the seventeenth century, but Āhom was still the means of communication between the king and his ministers. At the time of the Muhammadan invasion in 1662 the Āhoms would still accept food from persons of any caste, and would eat all kinds of flesh, except that of human beings, whether of animals that had been killed or that had died a natural death. Gadādhar Singh (1681-96) was a friend of the Śākta Hindūs, and persecuted Vaishnavas who had then spread over the land. We have seen how Rudra Singh (1696-1714) sent for a Hindū priest, and how his son and successor, Šib Singh, formally adopted Hinduism. During this king's reign Hinduism became the dominant religion, and the Āhoms who did not accept it were looked upon as a degraded class. The influence of the Deodhais, or priests of the old Āhom religion, revived for a time about 1775. Similarly, Assamese, as a language, began to oust Āhom about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and from about 1720 it was no longer necessary for Hindū office-seekers to learn the latter language. It probably remained the spoken language of the Āhoms themselves until towards the end of the eighteenth century, and of the Deodhais for about fifty years longer. Even among the latter, it has been a dead language for over fifty years, and the number who still retain a decent knowledge of it is extremely limited, being barely a dozen all told.

The completeness with which the Ahom language was ousted is remarkable. There are now barely fifty words in common use which can be traced to an Ahom origin. The reason probably is that the Ahom people always formed a very small proportion of the population of the Assam Valley, and that, as their rule expanded and other tribes were brought under their control, it was necessary to have some lingua franca. The choice lay between Ahom and Assamese. The latter, being an Aryan language, had the greater vitality, and the influence of the Hindū priests was also strongly in its favour. The latter alone would probably not have sufficed. In Manipur, where there was no indigenous population speaking an Aryan language, the people became enthusiastic Hindūs without giving up their native language, although that language, unlike Ahom, was unwritten, and a character in which to write it had to be invented by the Brāhmaps.

other Shān tribes of Assam. They have their own priests, and these, as well as a large proportion of the laity, are literate. The Khāmtī language closely agrees with Northern Shān. A large proportion of the vocabulary is common to the two languages. The alphabets are nearly identical. It will be remembered that the Āhoms, unlike the Khāmtīs, have become Hinduised, and are no longer Buddhists.

The Phākials or Phākē are said to have left Müng Kâng for Assam about 1760 A.D., immediately after the subjugation of the kingdom of Põng by Alomphra. Before entering Assam they dwelt on the banks of the Turungpānī River, and were thus apparently near neighbours of the Tairongs. On reaching Assam, they at first resided on the Buri Dihing, whence they were brought by the Ahoms, and settled near Jorhat in the present district of Sibsagar. When the Burmese invaded Assam, they and other Shān tribes were ordered to return to Müng Kâng, and they had got as far as their old settlement on the Buri Dihing when the Province was taken by the British. Their language closely resembles Khāmtī, and, like the Khāmtīs and Tairongs, they are Buddhists. They seldom marry outside their own community, and, as this is very small, their physique is said to be deteriorating. They are adepts in the art of dyeing. At the Census of 1891 the total strength of the Phākials was only 565, all of whom inhabited the sadr subdivision of the Lakhimpur District.

Norā is the name by which the Müng Kâng Shāns are known to the Āhoms, and frequent references are made to them under that name in the Āhom chronicles. The persons known to us as Khāmjāngs or Kāmyāngs, are a section of that race, who formerly resided on the Patkoi Range, but who, like so many of their congeners, were driven to take refuge in Assam at the beginning of the nineteenth century by the oppression of the Kachins.

In the Asām Buranji we read that the Āhoms were attacked by the Nāgās on their way over the Patkoi at a place called Khāmjāng, and it may be that this place was also the early settlement of the section of the Norās who were subsequently known by that name. The number of Norās counted at the Census of 1891 was 751 (including Khāmjāngs). Nearly all of them live in the Jorhat Subdivision of Sibsagar.²

We have seen that the Northern Shāns were always spoken of by the other branches of the family as the 'Tai Long' ($\odot \circ \circ \circ$) or 'Great Tais'. In Shān the letters l and r are freely interchanged, so that another form of the name is 'Tai Rong'. One section of the Shāns who at various times entered Assam has retained this name, and its members are now known as Tairongs, Turūngs, or Shām (i.e., Shān) Turūngs. They are said to have immigrated into the Province less than eighty years ago. Their own tradition is that they originally came from Müng-māng Khau-shāng on the North-East of Upper Burma, and settled on the Turungpānī River, which took its name, 'the Tai-Rong Water', from them. While there, they received an invitation from the Norās, who had preceded them and had settled themselves at Jorhat, and in consequence they started across the Patkoi en route for the Brahmaputra Valley. They were, however, taken prisoners by the Kachins, and made to work as slaves, in which condition they say that they remained for five years, but really, probably, for a much longer period. They were released by

² The above information is based on the account of the tribe contained in Mr. Gait's Census Report, pages 283 and ff.

The above is based on the note on page 284 of Mr. Gait's Census Report.

Captain Neufville, along with nearly six thousand Assamese slaves, in 1825, and continued their journey to the Jorhat Subdivision, where they are still settled. During their servitude to the Kachins they entirely forgot their own language, and now only speak that of their conquerors, Singpho. They have, however, still a few books in their own language, which is practically the same as Khāmtī.

The Norās profess to look down on the Tairongs because they intermarried with the Kachins during their captivity, but the difference between the two tribes is very slight. Tairongs profess to intermarry with Norās, Khāmtīs, and Kachins, but, although these tribes would accept Tairong girls as wives, it is not likely that they would allow Tairongs to marry their own daughters. The number of Tairongs counted at the Census of 1891 was 301.

The Aitons or Aitonias, also called Shām Doāniyas, or Shān interpreters, are said to have been the section of the Shāns at Müng Kâng which supplied eunuchs to the royal seraglio, and to have emigrated to Assam to avoid the punishment to which, for some reason, they had been condemned. There are two small settlements of this tribe, one in the Naga Hills and the other in the Sibsagar District. They are Buddhists, and their priests come from the Khāmtī villages in Lakhimpur. The number of Aitons counted at the census of 1891 was 163, but there were probably more, who were returned simply as Shāns.²

From the foregoing it will appear that there were two distinct classes of Tai immigrants into Assam, both belonging to the Northern Shān tribes. The first immigration was that of the Åhoms, who entered Assam in the twelfth century A.D. as conquerors, and gave their name to the country. The second consisted of a number of small clans who came into Assam at various times between the middle of the eighteenth and the middle of the nineteenth century, not as conquerors, but as refugees from the oppression of the Burmese and the Kachins. Of these the Khāmtīs were the earliest and most important, and the others were small bodies of a few hundred people each, all closely connected with them, and speaking the same language. One of them, however, the Tairong, passed through a course of slavery on its route, and has abandoned its own language in favour of that of its masters, the Kachins. In the few points in which Khāmtī differs from the Shān of Burma, the other modern Tai languages of Assam partly agree with Khāmtī. The language of the early Tai invaders,—the Āhoms—has now died out, and the Āhoms are now completely Hinduised. The other Tai tribes of Assam have hitherto preserved their Buddhist religion.

The languages spoken by the Tai people fall into two groups, which we may call, for convenience, the Southern group and the Northern group.

The Southern group includes all the languages of the tribes whom I have classed above as South-Eastern Shāns, i.e., those who have settled east of the Salwin. It includes Siamese and Lao, and also two varieties of the latter known as Lü and Khün. Lao is spoken throughout the country situated between the Salwin and Mekong Rivers, and between the 19th parallel of north latitude and the northern boundary of the kingdom of Siam. Siamese, which does not differ widely from Lao as a spoken language, is co-extensive with the kingdom of Siam. Lü and Khün are spoken in Kainghung and in Kaingtung and the adjacent districts respectively. They form a link between the Northern

¹ Most of the above is based on the note on page 284 of Mr. Gait's Census Report.

and Southern Tai languages, but are nearer to the latter than the former. The Lao alphabet is derived from the Mön and closely related to it is that of Lü. The Siamese alphabet is said to be a modified form of the Bali of Cambodia. It was invented in the year 1125, in the reign of Rāmā Sōmdēt, or about a hundred years before the invasion of Assam by the Āhoms.

The Northern group includes a dead language, Ahom, together with Khāmtī and Shan proper. Ahom was the language of the Tai conquerors who first invaded Assam in the year 1228 and ruled it with varying power till the end of the eighteenth century. The Ahoms have long been completely Hinduised, and their language has for many years been extinct as a spoken tongue, but a considerable literature in it is still extant. It has an alphabet of its own, which is an archaic form of that used at the present day by the Khāmtīs and Shāns of Burma, but is much more complete. We are not in a position to say that it is certain that Khāmtī and Shān are actually descended from Ahom, but it is very probably the case, and without any doubt whatever Ahom, if not the actual progenitor, must have been very closely related to him. It is of peculiar interest to the philologist, as it is, so far as I am aware, the oldest form of Northern Tai speech regarding which we have any information. Khāmtī is spoken on the upper course of the Irrawaddy and its branches, also in Bor Khāmtī (Great Khāmtī Land), immediately to the east of Assam, and by four colonies in the Lakhimpur District of that Province. Shan is divided into three dialects, Northern Shan, Southern Shan, and Chinese Shan, or Tai Mau. Northern and Southern Shan occupy the territory between the mountains east of the great Burma plain and the Mekong River, and between the 19th and 23rd parallels of north latitude. Northern Shān is the language of the Northern Shān States, and Southern Shān that of the Southern Shan States. Northern Shan is closely allied to Southern Shan. indeed they form one language, with only slight differences of dialect. When they differ, Northern Shān is often in agreement with Khāmtī. Chinese Shān or Tai Mau is spoken in the many small principalities which lie east and north-east of Bhamo and are tributary to China. It, too, appears to differ but slightly from the other two dialects of Shan proper. Mr. Needham is of opinion that almost all the words found in use in Khāmtī are quite different from those in use in Shan proper, but this is hardly borne out by the imperfect observations which I have been able to make. To me it seems as if the two languages were almost the same. Dialectic differences of course exist, but, so far as I can find out, little more. The grammars are nearly identical. As regards vocabulary, all I can say is that out of the first twenty words in Mr. Needham's Khāmtī vocabulary, fourteen can at once be found in the same spellings and meanings in Dr. Cushing's Shan Dictionary, and probably more would be found there if allowance were made for difference of orthography. Northern and Southern Shan have the same alphabet, which is closely connected with Burmese. Chinese Shan has two additional letters and also writes its character in a peculiar diamond-shaped way instead of making them circular, a thing which its writers attribute to Chinese influence. Thus, a Burmese Shān would write tha ∞ and a Tai Mau would write it . Burmese Shān tradition says that about 300 years ago, after the establishment, or more probably the revival, of Buddhism, a Shan priest went down into the Burma country, learned Pali and Burmese, devised the present Shan alphabet, and translated some religious books into his own language. The Khamti alphabet closely resembles the Burmese Shan one, but some of the letters take divergent shapes. It is a mere local modification.

The literature of the Shāns of Burma is considerable, but it is chiefly religious. Some medical and historical works exist. All these are written in a rhythmical or poetical style often of an intricate construction, familiarity with which can only be gained by special study. Rhāmtī and Āhom have also literatures. Little is yet known about their contents, except that that of Āhom is rich in history. The remarkable series of historical works which forms the glory of Assamese literature is no doubt due to the influence of the Āhoms. The Assamese word for a 'history' is buranji, which is an Āhom word, viz., bū-ran-jī, literally, 'ignorant-teach-store', 'a store of instruction for the ignorant.'

Before treating of the Tai languages separately it will be convenient to deal here, once for all, with some of their main typical characteristics. In giving examples, I shall, unless otherwise stated, take them from Ahom, the oldest form of the speech to which I have access.

The Tone System.—Every true Tai word consists of one syllable. A word may consist of a vowel alone, e.g. \bar{a} , wide; of a vowel preceded by one or more consonants (an open syllable) e.g. (\bar{A} hom) $b\bar{a}$, say; $tr\bar{a}$, a rupee; or of either of these followed by a consonant (closed syllable) e.g. $\bar{a}n$, before; $b\bar{a}n$, village; $khr\bar{a}ng$, property. In the Northern Tai language which has the most complete alphabet, \bar{A} hom, there are eighteen vowels and twenty-three simple consonants, each of which may be combined with any of the eighteen vowels. So far as the specimens show, the only consonants which can be combined so as to form compounds with other consonants are l and r. The compounds which occur in the specimens are seven in number, viz, khr, phr, mr, tr, bl, kl, pl.

There are thus 23 + 7 = 30 simple and compound consonants which, so far as we know, can possibly precede each vowel, and (if we add the eighteen vowels which can stand by themselves) there are, so far as we know, $18 + 30 \times 18 = 558$ possible open syllables in the Ahom language.

There are only seven consonants, k, t, p, ng, \tilde{n} , n, and m, which can end a word. The possible number of closed syllables is therefore $558 \times 7 = 3,906$. The total possible number of words in $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom is therefore 3,906 + 558 = 4,464. In Khāmtī and Shān it is far less. This figure is really too large even for $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom; for though it is possible that r and l may combine with other consonants than those mentioned above, it is, on the other hand, certain that a great many of the possible combinations, of which we do know, do not form words. In order to check this statement, we may compare the Siamese language, the phonetic system of which closely resembles that of $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom. In it the number of elementary monosyllables is only 1,851. In Mandarin Chinese, with a less wide range of original sounds, it is less than a third of this. As this number is not sufficient to furnish all possible ideas, it follows that if all possible ideas have to be expressed in a Siamese-Chinese language, one and the same word must have several distinct meanings. This is actually the case. For instance, in $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom, 'horse,' 'dog,' and 'come' are all indicated by the same word $m\tilde{\alpha}$.

In order to indicate the difference in meaning in such cases a system grew up in the Indo-Chinese languages of pronouncing the same word in different ways according to its meaning. This system is called that of tones. Owing to Ahom being a dead language, and to its not having any graphic method of indicating the tone in which a word is to be pronounced in order to indicate its meaning, we cannot, at the present day, say what tones were in use for any particular word when it formed a member of the spoken

language. But we can take the closely allied Shān, which is still spoken, to furnish an example.

In Shān¹ a word may be uttered with the lips partially closed, and is then said to have a closed tone; or it may be uttered with the lips wide open, when it is said to have an open tone.

Moreover, each of these may be varied in five different ways, viz. :-

- 1. The first tone is the natural pitch of the voice, with a slight rising inflexion at the end. It is called the *natural* tone.
 - 2. The second tone is a deep bass tone. It is called the grave tone.
- 3. The third tone is an even one; in pitch, between the first and second tones. It is called the *straightforward* tone.
- 4. The fourth tone is of a more elevated pitch than the first tone, and is called the high tone.
 - 5. The fifth tone is abrupt and explosive. It is called the *emphatic* tone.

As an example let us take the Shan word khai.

Spoken with a closed natural tone, it means 'fat.'

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", grave ", 'egg.'
", straightforward tone, it means 'desire,' 'narrate.'
", high tone, it means 'filth.'
", emphatic tone, it means 'mottled.'
", an open natural ", ", 'sell.'
", high ", "morass.'
", emphatic ", "remove.'
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Here we see that the word khai is spoken with eight different tones, each with a different meaning.

Another good example is the Shan word kau.

Spoken with a closed natural tone, it means 'I.', the pronoun.

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"" grave ", " 'be old.'
"" straightforward tone, it means 'nine,' also 'a lock of hair.'
"" high tone, it means 'be indifferent to evil results by a spirit.'
"" emphatic tone, it means 'an owl.'
"" an open natural ", " 'a butea tree.'
"" grave ", " complain of.' [ankle.'
"" straightforward tone, it means 'the leg from the knee to the
"" high tone, it means 'the common balsam plant.'
"" emphatic tone, it means 'a kind of mill.'
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Here kau has at least ten different meanings according to its tone.

We may take one more example of tones from another Indo-Chinese language, the Annamitic. It is quoted from Vol. II, p. 31 of the late Professor Max Müller's Lectures on the Science of Language. Ba ba ba ba is said to mean, if properly pronounced, 'three ladies gave a box on the ear to the favourite of the prince.' Ba with no tone means 'three,' with a grave tone means 'a lady,' with a high tone means 'a box on the ear,' and with a sharp tone means 'the favourite of a prince.' Economy of vocabulary could hardly go further.

This a count of the tones is condensed from Dr. Cushing's Shan Dictionary.

It is a common belief that these isolating, monosyllabic, languages, are examples of the infancy of speech. It is sometimes said that they are in the 'radical' stage, and that they may be expected to develop gradually into agglutinative and finally into synthetic tongues: So far, however, are they from being in their infancy, that the exact reverse is the case. They are languages in the last stage of decrepitude. That' they will all pass, and that some of them are now passing, through the agglutinative stage, may be admitted, but they have been there before. These monosyllabic words are worn down polysyllables, and these polysyllables were formed, just as we see polysyllables formed at the present day in other languages, by prefixes and suffixes. By constant attrition sometimes the prefix was rubbed down, leaving only a faint trace of the changes in the main word which its presence had effected. Or, on the other hand, the word itself may be rubbed down, so that apparently the prefix alone remains. The following example of the vicissitudes which an Indo-Chinese word undergoes in its life in the different Indo-Chinese languages is taken from Professor Conrady's work abovementioned. The original Indo-Chinese word was *rang, *ring, or *rong, a horse. It has become in—

Thochu, roh. Thi, Tyi. Horpa, Milchanang, rung. Tibarskad, shung. Southern Chin · shi. Gyarung, bo-roh. Manyak, bo-roh. Abor-Miri, bu•rī. ma-ri.Sokpa, ·m·ràng. Burmese, gū-m-rang. Singpho, kha-m-rang. Jili, Mutoniā, man, mok. ' $m\bar{\alpha}$, (old form) mo-r. Chinese, Tai languages, ma, mei, te-ma, ta-mei, etc. Miao-chi, Siyin, $sh\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{u}$. Tängkhul, sha-puk. se-rang. Chepang, sa-la. Newārī, sa-ro. Pahi, Bodo, ko-rr. (Possibly borrowed from Aryan.) Āo-Nāgā, kwi-r. (Ditto.) Angāmi Nāgā, ka-sē. Karen, r-ta. Tibetan, Pwo-Karen, thi.ka-thi, k-tha. Sgau-Karen, thay. Taungthu, ta-phu. Khami, Sharpa, Mürmi, ta. teh. Tak-pa, on. Lepcha, Limbu, ĕп. Lohorong, yen. Balali, yem-pa. Sangpeng,

^{&#}x27;Most of the following is based on Conrady's Eine unduchinesische Causativ-Denominativ Bildung und ihr Zusammenhang mit den Tonaccenten.

A consideration of the above list will show that in a great many languages, only the r of rang has survived. In others it has been changed to sh or s. In old Chinese, only the r remains with the prefix mo. The r has been dropped in modern Chinese, and only the prefix seems to remain under the form ma.

Finally, in the Tai languages, with which we are immediately concerned, the like fate has befallen rang. Only the prefix $m\bar{q}$ appears to remain. Every trace of the original word, except perhaps the pronunciation of the \bar{q} of the prefix, has disappeared. We can now understand how, in \bar{A} hom, the same word $m\bar{q}$ means both 'horse' and 'dog.'

Moreover, Professor Conrady explains how the system of tones has arisen from this elision of prefixes, or of the original word. It is not so much that, after the clision had taken place, the speakers found it necessary to distinguish between similar sounding words, and hence invented tones. The tones were automatic results of the elision of the prefixes. For instance, the prefix of a causal verb was s, which was originally an independent syllable. It first lost this character on account of the stronger stress naturally laid on the main word which followed it, and in compensation for this loss, the following syllable was pronounced in a higher tone. When the prefixed s finally disappeared, the higher tone remained behind. We are hence enabled to say that certain tones indicate the earlier existence of certain prefixes. In other words, the origin of the system of tones is not based on arbitrary inflexions of the voice, but on a natural process of derivation.

Couplets and Compounds.—As in other members of the Siamese-Chinese group of Indo-Chinese tongues, each Tai language is an isolating form of speech; that is to say it uses 'each element by itself, in its integral form.' Each simple word is a monosyllable, which never changes its shape, which gives the idea of one or more root-meanings, and to which the ideas, supplied in Aryan languages by the accidents of declension or conjugation, can be supplied by compounding it with other words possessing the root-meanings of the relations of place or time.

Each monosyllabic word in these languages may have several meanings, and, as above described, these are primarily differentiated by the use of tones.

But this tone system has not been found sufficient, and words are also differentiated by a system of compounding known as the formation of 'couplets.' The system in its essence is this,—two different words, each with several different meanings, but possessing one meaning in common, are joined together, and the couplet thus formed has only the meaning common to the two. This system is characteristic of the Siamese-Chinese group of languages and should be carefully mastered.

For instance,—take the words $kh\bar{a}$ and $ph\bar{a}n$. $Kh\bar{a}$, amongst its other significations, means (1) 'slave', (2) 'cut'; $ph\bar{a}n$, amongst its other significations, means (1) 'an order', (2) 'poor', (3) 'sorrow', (4) 'cut.' The couplet $kh\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{a}n$ means 'cut', and nothing else, because 'cut' is the only meaning common to its two members.

Other examples of such couplets are,1—

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pai-kā, go-go, to go.

nung-tāng, place-place, to place, to put on (clothes).

tāng-lai, all-all, all.

mün-khün, rejoicing-rejoicing, happiness.
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¹ Here and elsewhere, unless otherwise stated, all examples are taken from Ahom.

Sometimes, in these couplets, only one word has retained its meaning, while the other word has, in some particular language, lost its meaning and has become, what Dr. Cushing calls, a 'shadow word,' the compound having only the meaning of the dominant word exactly as occurs in Chinese. Thus, the Shāns say $t\bar{a}ng$ -shin for 'a road'; in which $t\bar{a}ng$ is the word which has retained its original meaning, while shin has lost it. So, in $\bar{A}hom$, we have $pe-ng\bar{a}$, a goat, in which $ng\bar{a}$ (so far as I can ascertain) has now no meaning in this connexion, while pe, by itself, also means a 'a goat.'

In some of these last couplets, the second member still retains a definite meaning, but has, so to speak, emptied itself of it in favour of the dominant member. This is very commonly the case with words like dai, to possess; bai, place, and the like. Thus,—

aü, take; aü-dai, to take; to collect, bring.
haü, give; haü-dai, give, give out and out.

rai, lose, be lost; rai-dai, to lose altogether, to be lost altogether, to die.

hup, to collect; hup-bai, to store.

 $kh \acute{a}t$, to bind; $kh \acute{a}t$ -bai, to bind.

Another form which these couplets take is the juxtaposition of two words, not of identical, but of similar meaning, the couplet giving the general signification of both. Thus,—

khráng, large property; ling, cattle and small property; khráng-ling, property generally.

 $n\bar{a}$, a field; kip, a plot of land; $n\bar{a}$ -kip, a field.

sho, complaint; $kh\bar{a}m$, word; sho- $kh\bar{a}m$, a complaint in a court of justice.

 $kh\bar{a}n$, price; $sh\ddot{u}$, buy; $a\ddot{u}$, take; $kh\bar{a}n$ - $sh\ddot{u}$, $a\ddot{u}$, to buy and take, to buy.

aü, take; kin, eat; aü-kin, to eat.

 $l\bar{a}t$, say; $kh\bar{a}m$, word; $l\bar{a}t$ - $kh\bar{a}m$, to say.

lāt-khām, say; lau, address; lat-khām-lau, to address a superior.

 $m\ddot{u}$, time; $b\bar{a}n$, day; $m\ddot{u}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, time, day.

There are other couplets the members of which possess, not even similar, but altogether different meanings, the resultant couplet having a signification giving the combined meaning of the two. These correspond to what would be called compounds in Aryan languages. Thus,—

 $b\bar{a}n$, day, sun; tuk, fall; $b\bar{a}n$ -tuk, sunset, evening.

 $a\ddot{u}$, take; $m\ddot{q}$, come; $a\ddot{u}$ - $m\ddot{q}$, fetch, bring.

 $j\vec{a}k$, worthy; $b\bar{a}$, say; $j\vec{a}k-b\bar{a}$, worthy to be called.

 $h\bar{a}n$, see, be seen; dai, possess; $h\bar{a}n$ -dai, become visible. In this way dai makes many potential compounds.

 $r\bar{a}ng$, to arrange; $k\bar{a}n$, mutuality; $r\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}n$, consult. In this way $k\bar{a}n$ makes many couplets implying mutuality.

 $p\bar{a}n$, divide; $k\bar{a}n$, begin; $p\bar{a}n$ - $k\bar{a}n$, to begin to divide. In this way $k\bar{a}n$ makes many inceptive compounds.

haü, give; õi, continuance; haü-oi, give or cause continually.

po, strike, be struck; \bar{u} , be, remain; $po \cdot \bar{u}$, is striking, is being struck. In this

way \bar{u} performs the function of what, in Aryan grammar, we should call the Definite Present Tense.

- \bar{u} , be; jau, complete; \bar{u} -jau, was. In this way jau performs the function of what we should call the Past Tense.
- po, strike, be struck; \bar{u} , be; jau, complete; $po-\bar{u}\cdot jau$, was striking, was being struck. In this way \bar{u} -jau performs the function of what we should call the Imperfect Tense.
- $t\bar{\imath}$, place, hence, motion towards; po, father; $t\bar{\imath}$ -po, to a father. In this way $t\bar{\imath}$, prefixed, performs the function of what we should call the Dative Case; as giving also the idea of a place started from, it is also used in Shān to indicate the function of the Ablative Case.
- tī, place, hence, motion towards; po, strike, be struck; tī-po, shall strike, shall be struck. In this way tī, prefixed, also performs the function of what we should call the Future Tense. In a Tai language, the idiom is exactly the same in both cases.
- . pai, go; nai, suddenness; pai-nai, go unexpectedly. Here, as in the case of oi, nai performs the function of an adverb.

haü, give, cause; kin-klin (klen), eat-drink; haü-kin-klin, cause to eat and drink, feed; so haü-oi-kin-klin, cause to continually eat and drink, feed regularly, pasture.

Although these couplets only represent, each, one idea, the separability of their parts is always recognised. So much is this the case that when another word corresponding to what we should call a prefix, a suffix, or an adjective is added, it is often given to both members of the couplet. Thus, $kh\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{a}n$ means 'to cut,' and $kh\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}n$ - $ph\bar{a}n$ - $k\bar{a}n$ means 'to begin to cut,' $k\bar{a}n$, meaning 'to begin.' So hit means 'to do,' $m\bar{u}n$ - $kh\bar{u}n$, is 'rejoicing,' and hit- $m\bar{u}n$ -hit- $hi\bar{u}n$, is 'to do rejoicing,' 'to rejoice'; $m\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, time, day; $k\bar{u}$, every; $k\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, every day, always, often.

Although these words usually appear in couplets, they sometimes appear in compounds of three or more words, in order to give the requisite shade of meaning. A good example is haü-oi-kin-klin, to pasture, given above. In such compounds, the connexion of ideas is not always plain. The following are examples:—

kiñ-bā-dī, very say good, called very good, excellent, best.

khān-mā-chām, quick come swift, as soon as.

khām-mā-lau, word come speak, a word.

phā-khrung-klāng, divide divide middle, a half.

haü-aü-dai, give take possess, give fetch, fetch and give.

aü-rap-dai, take bind possess, take (a person as a servant).

jāng-haü-dai, be give possess, give.

thām-khām-rō, ask word know, enquire.

chī-rāp-chāp-khāp-bai, a finger-ring, explained as 'jewel bind pure round place.' The Shān for 'finger-ring' is, however, lāk-chāp, which is borrowed from the Burmese, and means, literally 'hand-insert.'

Finally, there are some compounds the meaning of each member of which has been entirely lost. Examples are,—

 $m\bar{q}$ -lau-kin, at any time.

pān-kū, who (relative pronoun).

Inflexion.—In the Tai languages, all pure Tai words are monosyllables; only words borrowed from foreign languages, like kāchārī, a court-house, are polysyllabic.

Every word, without exception, denotes, primarily, the idea of some thing, action, or condition, such as a man, a tree, striking, going, sleep, death, life, distance, propinquity, goodness, I, thou, he, she, it.

Some of these words, such, for instance, as 'tree,' can only perform the functions of nouns substantive, or can only with difficulty be twisted into performing other functions. Other words, corresponding to what in Aryan languages we call 'verbal nouns,' are capable of being easily used in other functions. Thus, if in Ahom we wish to express the idea 'slept' we say 'sleep-completion'; if we wish to express 'sleeps,' we say 'sleep-existence,' and if we wish to express 'will sleep,' we say 'motion-towards-sleep.'

It will thus be seen that the processes of what we call declension and conjugation do not properly occur in Āhom, nor can we divide the vocabulary into parts of speech. The relations which, in Aryan languages, we indicate by these two processes of inflexion are in Āhom indicated, partly by the position of the various words in the sentence, and partly by compounding words together.

We cannot, properly speaking, talk of nouns and verbs, we can only talk of words performing the functions of nouns or verbs.

When inflexion is formed by composition, most of the auxiliary words added to the main words have, as we have seen above, a definite meaning. In some cases, however, these auxiliary words have lost their meanings as original words, or, at least, we are not at present acquainted with them. In such cases we may talk of these auxiliary words as performing the functions of suffixes or prefixes.

As an example of the preceding, let us take the way in which the word bai, placing, may be treated.

If we make it perform the function of what we call a noun, it means, 'a placing', 'a putting' (e.g., of a ring on a finger); or, 'putting (in a safe place),' hence 'watching,' 'taking care of'.

But the idea of 'putting' includes the idea of laying down or putting on to some thing. Hence, bai comes to perform the function of a preposition, and may mean 'on' as in bai lāng, on back, i.e., after.

Again, if we wish it to perform the function of a verb the idea of 'placing' is treated as a verbal noun, i.e. 'to place.' If, to this, we add the imperative suffix $sh\bar{\imath}$, we get $bai - sh\bar{\imath}$, store. Nay, bai, by itself may be used as, what we should call, a present tense, and means 'he, she, it' or '(they) place.' If, with this, we compound the word hup, whose root idea is 'collection,' we get hup-bai, collection-put, i.e., '(they) save up.'

As to what function each word in a sentence performs, that is determined partly by custom. Although, theoretically, every word may perform the function of any part of speech; in practice, such is not the case. Some, such as po, a father; $r\ddot{u}n$, a house; $b\ddot{a}n$, a day, are, by their nature, confined to the function of substantives. Some are usually either adjectives or verbs, such as $ph\ddot{u}k$, whiteness, but usually either 'white,' or 'to be white.'

Others, such as aü, take; haü, give, are in practice confined to the function of verbs, but others, like bai, above quoted, may perform any function.

L

Conjugation.—When a Tai word performs the function of a verb, it can, as it stands, be used for any tense, mood, or voice, thus.

Present Time phraü kūn-phring dai khau, how many persons possess (dai) rice.

Past Time mān bā, he said.

Future Time (Aitonia), kau po pai lau, I will go (pai) to (my) father (and)

will say (lau).

Imperative maü khā-lik bai chám doiñ, thou servant keep (bai) with, keep

(me) with (thy) servants.

Infinitive kau bau pai-kā lāk, I not went to steal (lāk), I did not go to

steal.

Verbal Noun bai shaü-hing-jau-o (I) had performed watching (bai), I had watched.

Past Participle bā bān, (on) the said day, on the day referred to.

Active Voice pān-kū luk-ko rai-dai maŭ tāng-lai khām, what son lost (rai-dai) thy all gold, the son who lost all thy gold.

Passive Voice man rai-dai, he was lost.

Voice.—It follows from the above that there is no formal distinction between the Active voice and the Passive. The same word has either an active or a passive signification according to the meaning required by the sentence. Thus, take kau po, which means 'I beat.' On the other hand, kau-mai po means "beats me," that is to say 'I am beaten'. Here there can be no doubt that the latter sentence is to be construed passively, owing to kau-mai being in the accusative case. But, if we take the example given above, mān rai-dai it means both 'he lost' and 'he was lost,' and we can only gather that it is to be construed passively because the general sense of the context requires it. The idea of activity or passivity would not enter into the mind of an Āhom speaker at all. He simply says 'he loss,' and leaves the hearer to conclude as to what he means.

Mood and Tense.—As already said, the bare word itself can be used for any tense, and is frequently so used, but, when this would lead to ambiguity, as it sometimes must, the accidents of mood and tense are expressed by the use of particles, the form of the main word never undergoing any change. It cannot be said that these are suffixed or prefixed to the word which performs the function of the verb, for they are often widely separated from it. Thus take the sentence po-mān pān-kān tāng-lai khráng-ling klāng sháng pī náng jau, the-father begin-to-divide all property between two elder son younger son complete, i.e., the father began to divide his property between his elder and younger Here the word performing the function of a verb is pān-kān, divide-begin, and the particle indicating past time, jau, is separated from it by six other words. In fact, in the Tai mind, these particles do not give past, present, or future time to any particular word in the sentence, but to the sentence as a whole. The above sentence would present itself to a Tai speaker's mind something like this, 'the commencement of the division of the property by the father between the elder and younger son is an event done and completed.' The word jau which I have called a particle of past time is really an independent word whose root idea is 'completion.' How little jau is really a verbal suffix, but really has a distinct meaning of its own, is well shown by the fact that we find it in clauses in which, by no process of ingenuity, we can discover the existence of any verbal idea at all. Thus, $r\bar{o}$ $p\bar{\imath}$ -lüng jau (Āhom specimens, II, 3), literally, before year-one completion, i.e., (the cow which I bought) a year ago. The full sentence runs kau. $kh\bar{a}n$ -jau luk- $t\bar{a}m$ Dhoni- $r\bar{a}m$ $r\bar{o}$ $p\bar{\imath}$ - $l\ddot{u}ng$ jau. It is plain that the jau at the end of the sentence cannot refer to the verb $kh\bar{a}n$, buy, for that is already supplied with another jau suffixed to it. The final jau refers only to the final clause and must be represented in English by 'ago.'

In the same way other particles which give the idea of tense have their own meanings. Thus \bar{u} , the particle of present time, means 'existence'; $k\bar{a}$, another particle of past time probably means the 'place' from which action starts; just as $t\bar{\imath}$, the particle of future time means the 'place' to which the action is proceeding.

Hence, too, as each particle affects the whole sentence, Tai languages can afford to be economical of their use. If in the same sentence there are many words performing the functions of verbs all in, what we should call, the same tense, then only one tense particle is supplied for all. For example,— $poi\ m\bar{a}n$ - $ko\ kh\bar{u}n\ ch\bar{a}m\ pai\cdot k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ $t\bar{\imath}$ po- $m\bar{a}n$ jau, and he arise and go to the father complete, i.e., and he arose and went to his father. Here we must translate both $kh\bar{u}n$, arose, and $pai\cdot k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, went, as if they were verbs in the past tense. But there is only one particle of past time, jau, and it refers to both the words performing the function of verbs.

Order of words.—In most Indo-Chinese languages the most important help to distinguishing what function is performed by any word is the place which it occupies in relation to the other words in the sentence. Or, to put the matter differently, the meaning of a sentence is to be grasped from the order of the words which comprise it. Thus, let us refer again to the phrase quoted on p. 68 ba ba ba ba. We know from the tones that the words mean in order, 'three,' 'lady,' 'box on the ear,' and 'favourite of a prince,' respectively. We know that the order of meaning is subject, verb, object, and therefore we are aware that it is the three ladies who boxed the favourite, and not that that delicate attention was paid to them by him.

To take the simplest possible example from Āhom. Kip means 'husk,' and khau means 'rice.' Kip khau means 'husk of rice' and not 'rice of husk,' because the rule is that when a word performs the function of a genitive, it follows the word which governs it. Hence, assuming that one of these words performs the function of a genitive, we must also assume that khau is the one that does so, and that it is governed by kip. In an Indo-Aryan language the order of the words would be exactly reversed. We should say 'dhān-kā bhūsā,' not 'bhūsā dhān-kā,' and as the order of words in a sentence indicates the order in which the speaker thinks, it follows that (so far as the expression of a genitive is concerned) speakers of Tai languages think in an order different from that which presents itself to the mind of a speaker of an Indo-Aryan language.

In the different members of the Tai languages customs differ as to the order of words. We may take the order of words customary in Siamese as that most characteristic of the Tai group. Shān and Khāmtī appear to have been influenced by Tibeto-Burman languages in this respect. In Āhom the order of words is altogether peculiar. In Siamese, the order of words is as in English, subject, verb, object. Adjectives follow the word they qualify (here differing from colloquial English), and genitives follow the words on which they are dependent. In Shān the rule about the object following the

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verb is not imperative, whereas in Khāmtī (which at the present day stands isolated amid a sea of Tibeto-Burman languages) the order is as in them, subject, object, verb. The order of words in an Āhom sentence will be discussed when dealing with that language. In all the languages, one rule is almost universal, that is, the position of the adjective after the word it qualifies and of the genitive after the word which governs it.

It may be pointed out that the typical Tai order of words—that given above for Siamese—is the same as that of Khassi, but is altogether opposed to the genius of Tibeto-Burman languages.

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E.—On Phākial.

I know of no account of this dialect. A short account of the tribes is to be found in Mr. Gait's Census Report of Assam for 1891, and has been already quoted on p. 64.

F.—On Norā.

The same remarks apply. Cf. p. 64 ante..

G.—On Tairong.

The same remarks apply. See also Captain Gurdon's account of the Khamtis quoted under Head B.

H.—On Aitoniā.

Vocabulary in pp. 168 and ff. of Campbell's Specimens, quoted under Head B. A short list of words in Damant's Notes, quoted under Head A. See also Ney Elias, quoted under Head A.

The Mutual Relationship of the Tai Languages of Assam.—As already stated, these languages are all closely related to each other. Indeed, they should not be considered as languages, but as members of the group of Northern Shān dialects. Of these dialects, Khāmtī and the Northern Shān of Burma may be considered as the most widely separated, though, in truth, even in this case, the distance between them is not great. Āhom is, of course, on an altogether different level. It belongs to a different layer of speech, and may be considered to stand in the position of parent to all the others. We therefore put it for the present out of consideration.

Khāmtī is most widely different from Burmese Shān because the Khāmtīs left Müng Kâng a century and a half ago, and their language has had time to develop on independent lines. It has, too, retained archaic forms which have disappeared in its Müng Mau brother. For instance, in the alphabet, it still has the form for the letter ka which was originally borrowed from the Burmese, $viz., \infty$, while in Müng Mau Shān, the letter has changed its form to \mathfrak{o} .

The other modern Assam Tai languages have come into their new home at much later times. They have thus retained more or less of the peculiarities of the language of their original habitat, though all have come to some degree under the influence of the more powerful Khāmtī.

Tairong is the one which is most like Khāmtī. It is in fact almost the same dialect, the differences being hardly even tribal peculiarities. We have seen how nearly all the Tairongs lost their own language during their captivity among the Singphōs, and the few that speak a Tai language at the present day have not improbably learnt it again from their Khāmtī relations, and have slightly modified it under the influence of dim traditions of their old form of speech.

The next nearest is Norā. It uses the Khāmtī alphabet, but has one letter, a, which has been lost by Khāmtī, but which existed in Āhom, and still also survives in Shān and Aitoniā. Its vocabulary has more words which are peculiar to Shān than Tairong has, and its grammar often uses both Khāmtī and Shān forms (when they differ) indifferently. Thus, the Dative and the Ablative cases may be made after either the Khāmtī or the Shān fashion and so for the Future tense of verbs.

Aitoniā is the furthest removed from Khāmtī and the nearest to Shān. It still uses the Shān alphabet, although in the case of one or two letters it has adopted Khāmtī forms. It uses Shān grammatical forms freely, but also does not disdain the corresponding Khāmtī ones.

The number of people reported to speak these modern Tai dialects in Assam is as follows:—

	Dialect.						Where spoken.						No. of speakers.
Khāmtī	•	•		•		•	Lakhimpur .	•	•	٠,	•		2,930
Phākial	•	•			•	•	Lakhimpur .	• ,		•			625
Norā.			•				Sibsagar .			•			300
Tairong				•			Sibsagar .			•			150 ·
Aitoniã	•		•	•			Sibsagar and Naga	Hills		•		•	200
,	<u> </u>									Тот	AL	•	4,205

These figures do not necessarily agree with the Census figures for the numbers of members of each tribe counted in 1891. The number of speakers of a language, and the number of members of the tribe which speaks it, do not usually agree. The figures for speakers of Khāmtī given above are those of the Census of 1891, reduced to round numbers. Those for other languages are merely local estimates.

I have been unable to get any specimens of Phākial, and hence can give no particulars about this dialect.

ÄHOM.

As already several times stated, Āhom is an extinct language. It is reported that about a hundred people in the Sibsagar District of Assam can speak it (much as Pandits can speak Sanskrit), but that it is not their vernacular. It is very doubtful if there are now so many. A full account of the Āhoms is given in the general introduction to this group of languages. See pp. 61 and ff.

The following grammatical sketch and vocabulary are based on the specimens attached, and their accuracy depends on the care with which the latter have been prepared. This task was performed by Babu Golab Chundra Barua, formerly the Ahom translator to the Assam Government, who is, I suppose, the only person alive who is familiar with both Ahom and English. The accuracy of the translation of the specimens is guaranteed by the inexhaustible kindness of Mr. E. A. Gait, I.C.S., who has gone through it with Babu Golab Chundra Barua, and has not only checked the meaning of every syllable of this monosyllabic language, but has also supplied me with a valuable series of notes elucidating the many difficult points. I trust, therefore, that, in their main lines, the grammar and vocabulary annexed will be found to be accurate. I have departed from my usual custom in providing a vocabulary. It seemed to me advisable to do this on account of the little that is known regarding this interesting language.

Alphabet.—The Ähom alphabet is an old form of that which, under various forms, is current for Khāmtī, Shān, Burmese, and Chākmā. It is more complete than those of Khāmtī and Shān, but not so complete as those of Burmese and Chākmā. It is to be ultimately referred to the alphabet in which Pāli was written.

The Åhom alphabet consists of forty-one letters, of which eighteen are vowels and twenty-three are consonants. They are given in the following table, together with the corresponding Khāmtī letters for the sake of comparison.

Vowels.

	•		
	Ähom.	Khāmtī.	Power.
1	W	ers.	a. In Åhom only used as a fulcrum for other vowels.
2	W ?	8.8.8	$ar{a}.$
3	m	જા	ā.
n Ai	m	w w	i, e (as in met).
5	zh	Ser.	ē.
6	M	en en	u.
7	Ky,	- m	ũ.

Vowels-contd.

	Ähom.	Khāmtī,	Power.
. 8	1m	(m)	e, as in met.
9	126	600	$ar{e}$, as the ey in $they$.
10	Vm	(ws)	o, as in often; the short sound of â, No. 17.
11	K O	Mg	\bar{o} , as in note.
12	mô	2	ü.
13	m	on	ai.
14	Vno	mg.	au, as in German. Like the ou in 'house'.
15	m	બ્લુ	aü. Probably pronounced like the Norwegian ey.
16	mô	∞ ξ	in.
17	₩ ₀	B	\hat{a} , like the a in all ; the long sound of o , No. 10.
18	₩	- rg	oi, as in boil.

Consonants.

	Āhom.	Khāmtī.	Power.
19	m	ന	kā
20	13	•	khā.
21	or g	•••	gā (not in Khamti).
22	vo	•••	ghā (not in Khāmtī).

ÄHOM. ALPHABET.

	Ähom.	Khāmtī.	Power.
23	7	e	$ng\bar{a}$, as in $sing$.
24	20	•••	$ch\bar{a}$; in Khāmtī sometimes has the power of the English t .
25	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{W}}$	w	$jar{a}$. In Khāmtī y .
26	70 W		jhā (not in Khāmtī).
27	W	n	$\tilde{n}a$. Sometimes pronounced n or y .
28	01	တ	$tar{a}.$
29	70	∞	thd.
30	F	•••	$dar{a}$ (not in Khāmtī).
31	DO		$dhar{a}$ (not in Khāmtī).
32	B	40	nā.
33	つ	U	$par{a}$.
34	10	~	pha.
35	O	0	bā, wā (final) (only w in Khāmtī)
36	zg		bhā (not in Khāmtī).
37	\mathcal{U}	•9	$mar{a}.$
38	B	૧	rā.
39	70	N	lā.
40	W	ev	sha.
41	n	. 3	$har{a}$.

As regards the Vowels, the first, \mathcal{M} \tilde{a} , is considered in Ahom to be a consonant as in Siamese. It is used, much like the *alif* of Hindōstānī, merely as a fulcrum for carrying the other vowels when they are initial. The vowel inherent in consonants is, as in Chākmā, \tilde{a} , not a. Hence when \mathcal{M} stands at the commencement of a word, and is followed by another consonant, it has the force of \tilde{a} . Thus, \mathcal{M} \tilde{h} $\tilde{a}n$. When a syllable is not a closed one, but ends in long \tilde{a} , the letter \tilde{a} (No. 3) must be written in full. Thus \mathcal{M} \tilde{a} , \mathcal{M} $n\tilde{a}$. \mathcal{M} by itself would mean nothing.

The second vowel \mathcal{K} corresponds to the Sanskrit visarga. It occurs both in Shān and Siamese, but not in Khāmtī. In Shān it is used as a tone sign, to indicate a high tone. In Siamese, it is used to indicate short vowels. In Āhom, according to the present tradition, its pronunciation is the same as \bar{a} (No. 3), and it is freely interchanged with it. Thus the word for 'to come' is written both \mathcal{V}' and \mathcal{V} . I therefore transliterate it \bar{a} . The vowel \mathcal{K} (No. 4) is pronounced both i and e. In transliterating the specimens I have indicated, so far as I could, every ease in which it is pronounced e. I can find no rule for the pronunciation.

Similarly the vowel \mathcal{H} (Nos. 7 and 11) has two sounds, those of \bar{u} and \bar{o} . When it is final, and has the \bar{o} -pronunciation, the letter $\hat{\mathbf{O}}$ is added to it. But when it is medial, this $\hat{\mathbf{O}}$ is dropped, so that there is no means of distinguishing between the two pronunciations. Thus, \mathcal{L} $n\bar{u}$, but \mathcal{L} \hat{o} $n\bar{o}$. Both $n\bar{u}n$ and $n\bar{o}n$ would be written \mathcal{L} $\hat{\mathcal{L}}$. I am not at all certain that this distinction in writing $n\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{o}$ really exists. All that I can say is that it is what is done in the specimens here given.

The other vowels (Nos. 12 and 16) which end in $\widehat{\mathbf{O}}$, also only retain this $\widehat{\mathbf{O}}$ when the vowel is at the end of the syllable. When it is medial, the $\widehat{\mathbf{O}}$ is dropped.

The vowel \mathcal{H} au (No. 14) is often written \mathcal{H} δ āw. Thus \mathcal{H} or \mathcal{H} or \mathcal{H} or \mathcal{H} or \mathcal{H} or \mathcal{H} au represents the correct pronunciation.

In writing, m and m and m and m and m or even m or eve

In the above table, the vowels are all given in their initial forms, *i.e.*, attached to \mathcal{K} which, as already stated, is considered by the \bar{A} homs to be a consonant. They can

be similarly attached to any other consonant. The following are examples:—

 $\mathcal{M}_{k\bar{q}}^{\dagger}, \mathcal{V}_{k\bar{q}}^{\dagger}, \mathcal{M}_{k\bar{q}}^{\dagger}, \mathcal{M}_{k\bar{q$

Note that in writing these vowels great carelessness is observed. I have already pointed out the frequent confusion between au and $a\ddot{u}$. In the same way i and \bar{v} , and u and u, are continually confounded,—or rather \bar{v} is often written for i, and u for u. Similarly

 \mathcal{H} i and \mathcal{H} ü are often confounded.

As regards Consonants, it will be seen that the \bar{A} hom alphabet is more complete than Khāmtī. The latter wants the soft letters g, gh, j, jh, d, dh, b and bh. On the other hand Khāmtī has g instead of the \bar{A} hom j. The same is the case in Shān. In other respects, also, the Khāmtī alphabet is nearly, but not quite, the same as that of Shān. In \bar{A} hom, the letter \bar{O} (No. 35) is pronounced b when initial, and w when final. When subscript to another consonant it is used for the vowel \hat{a} (No. 18).

Every consonant has the letter \bar{a} inherent in it. The same occurs in the Chākmā spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, which is an Aryan language, using an alphabet belonging to the same group as that of Āhom. In the transliterations drawn up by the local officers the \bar{a} is always carefully marked as long, and there seems to be little doubt about the matter. The same transliteration, however, represents the sound of o in 'hot' by a (as in Assamese), and hence it is possible that while the inherent vowel of the consonants is marked \bar{a} , it is not necessarily a long \bar{a} , but may also have the sound of a in 'have.' The point is not of much consequence, for since, as has been said above, the tones of the words have been forgotten, there is little chance of the modern pronunciation of the inherent vowel correctly representing the ancient one.

When it is desired to pronounce a consonant (standing alone) without the inherent vowel, as, for instance, at the end of a closed syllable, the mark corresponding to the

Sanskrit $vir\bar{a}ma$ is put over it. Thus \mathcal{M} $k\bar{a}$, but \mathcal{M} k. The letter \mathcal{V} $m\bar{a}$, however, when final, does not take this mark. Instead of this it becomes \circ , a small circle, written above the preceding consonant, and corresponding to the Sanskrit $anusv\bar{a}ra$. Thus \mathcal{V} not \mathcal{V} $ch\bar{a}m$, and.

In $Kh\bar{a}mt\bar{i}$, the inherent vowel has the same sound as in Hindi,—that of the a in 'America.' In Shān it is described as the a in 'quota', 'Ida'. Dr. Cushing often transcribes it as \bar{a} . In Siamese, its sound is represented by δ . In both Shān and Khāmtā an $anusv\bar{a}ra$ is used to indicate a final m.

The pronunciation of the consonants presents little difficulty. $\mathcal{V}_{ng\bar{a}}$ is pronounced

like the ng in 'sing', and γO $ch\bar{a}$ as in 'church'. The nasal letter \mathcal{W} $n\bar{a}$ has the power of $ny\bar{a}$. But at the end of a syllable, it is sometimes pronounced as an n, and

sometimes as a y. Thus \mathcal{H} \mathcal{H} khiiñ, much, is pronounced khiin. \mathcal{H} \bar{u} \bar{u} , gladness, is pronounced \bar{u} y.

In Ahom, the letter \mathcal{V} (No. 35) has two sounds; $b\bar{a}$ when initial, and w when final. It is often written as a mere circle, thus, O E.g., $O\hat{O}$ $b\bar{a}w$, for bau, not. In literary Khāmtī, Shān, and Siamese, there is no b-sound, this letter being always pronounced as w. In colloquial Shān, an initial m is frequently pronounced b. Thus $m\bar{a}ng$ is pronounced $b\bar{a}ng$.

The letters w, l, and r are frequently compounded with other consonants. In such cases w becomes the vowel \tilde{a} (No. 17), q.v. The following compounds of r and l occur in the specimens and list of words, khr, phr, mr, tr, bl, kl, and pl.

The method of writing a compound r is properly as follows, \mathcal{B} $khr\bar{a}$, $phr\bar{a}$, $phr\bar{a}$, $mr\bar{a}$, but in words of frequent occurrence the r is omitted in writing.

Thus khráng, property, is written \mathcal{R} kháng, not \mathcal{B} khráng, and phraü, who?

is written both of phraü and phaü, and also (incorrectly) even

phrau and phau. This word well illustrates the extreme laxity observed in writing the vowels in $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom. The first of these four forms is, of course, the correct spelling.

I can give only one example of the form which l takes when compounded with another consonant.

It is the word \mathcal{P}_{l} \in klin (pronounced klen), drink, as compared with \mathcal{P}_{l} kin, eat. It thus appears, if this example applies to every case, that the form which conjunct l takes is the same as that of the letter \bar{q} . As we have seen is often the case with r, the letter l, when it is compound, is omitted in every other instance in which it occurs in the specimens and list of words. The following are the remaining words containing this letter:—

m klai, written kai, far, distant.

m? klāng, written kāng, middle.

ug pláng, written páng, clear.

These compound letters have almost disappeared in Khāmtī and Shān. Compounded l has disappeared altogether. Thus, the Khāmtī word for 'distant' is kai and for 'middle' is $k\bar{a}ng$. The only certain instance of a compound r occurring in Khāmtī with which I am acquainted is in $tr\bar{a}$, a rupee, corresponding to the

Āhom $tr\bar{q}$. There may be a few others, but I do not know them. The general rule is that a compound r in Āhom disappears in Khāmtī and Shān. Thus—

_	Ähom.			Khāmtī.				Shān.				English.		
	khrång			khâng	•	•	•	•	khang	•		•	•	property.
	khring		•			••••			khing					body.
	khriu	•		khiu					khiu					tooth.
	khrung			khüng					khing					divide.
	$phra\ddot{u}$		•	phaü					phau		,			who?
	phring					•••••			phing		,			be many.
	phrum			phum					phum			•		hair.
Compare	}													
	kin .		,	kın		•			kin			•		eat.
	klin or kli	in	•	kin	•		•		kin	•		•		drink.

In Ahom the words for 'eat' and 'drink' are distinct. In Khāmtī and Shān they are the same.

Irregular forms of syllables sometimes occur. Thus the interjection αi is always written \mathcal{H}'_{α} as if it was $h\bar{\alpha}$. The word hit, do, is always written \mathcal{H}_{α} , as if it was ki. In I, 40, boi, service, is written \mathcal{H}_{α} , instead of \mathcal{H}_{α} .

Some consonants are freely interchanged. Thus, we have both $j\bar{a}ng$ and $n\bar{a}ng$, be; khau and $sha\bar{u}$, enter; $ch\bar{a}m$ and $ch\bar{a}ng$, and.

The numeral figures are-

اکرر	or	71	1	1	(5	6
B			2		n	7
ŵ			3		m	8
M			4		D	9
m		•	5		701	10

These are as given me by the local authorities. Those for three, four, and five are doubtful, as they are only the words $sh\bar{a}m$, three; $sh\bar{\imath}$, four; and $h\bar{a}$, five, spelt out. There can be no doubt about the others. When numerals are used, the figure and not the word is almost always written. Thus, when $l\bar{u}ng$, one, is used for the indefinite article, a, we

always find) or '11, 1, not $2^{\frac{1}{2}}$ lüng, one. Similarly for 'two' we find $2^{\frac{1}{2}}$, not $2^{\frac{1}{2}}$ shāng, two. In the second specimen, however, the word for 'eighteen', ship-pit, is spelt out.

Relationship of Āhom to Khāmtī and Shān.—Like Khāmtī and Shān, Ahom belongs to the Northern Sub-Group of the Tai Group of languages. It is in an older stage of linguistic development, and is therefore of considerable philological interest. It bears something of the same relationship to them that Sanskrit does to Pāli, but the relationship is much closer. Khāmtī and Shān have not developed so far from Āhom, as Pāli has from Sanskrit. In one point, however, there is close resemblance between the two relationships. This consists in the simplification of compound consonants. Āhom khr, pl and other compound consonants are simplified into kh, p, etc., in Khāmtī and Shān, just as Sanskrit khr, pl, and other compound consonants become kh, p, etc., in Pāli.

Siamese occupies an intermediate position. Compound consonants are written, but are not always pronounced. Thus in the word phlöp, twilight, the l is pronounced, but in chring, truly, the r is not heard, and the word is pronounced ching. Sometimes, instead of the second member of the compound being unpronounced, a very short vowel (like the svarabhakti familiar to students of languages derived from Sanskrit) is inserted between the two letters. Thus the word tlat, a market, is pronounced t^*lat .

It is not necessary to give examples of the changes which befall compound consonants, as they have been dealt with under the head of the alphabet. I shall here confine myself to considering what other changes, if any, occur in the transition from Ahom to the modern Northern Tai languages.

- 1. As a rule, the Āhom vowels are retained in Khāmtī and Shān. There are very few exceptions, such as Āhom khrung, divide, Khāmtī and Shān khüng.
 - 2. As regards consonants, the following changes occur: --
 - (a) Ahom b usually corresponds to Khāmtī or Shān w. Thus,—

Āhom.	Khāmtī,	Shān.	English.
Ьα	wā	wa	8a y.
bai	wai	ıvai	put.
ban	wān	wān	day.

Sometimes it becomes m. Thus,—

Āhom.	Kbāmtī.	Shān.	English.
blák bān	mák m ā n	måk mån or wån	flower.
bari haü	naü	māw or wāw maü	a youth.

In Shan, the uneducated frequently pronounce m as if it was b.

(b) Ahom d becomes Khāmtī and Shān n or l. Thus,—

Āhom.	Kbāmtī.	Shān.	English.
dai dāng ḍau dī din	nai hū-nāny nau nī	lai khū-l a ng lau l ī lin	obtain. nose. star. Siamese dau. good. Siamese dī. ground. Siamese dīn.
dip dün	nip nün or lün	lip lün	alive. moon. Siamese düen.

The difference between Khāmtī and Shān is not so great as it looks, for both languages freely interchange n and l. It will be noticed that Siamese retains the d.

- (c) Āhom h usually remains unchanged, but sometimes appears in Khāmtī and Shān as ng. Thus, Ahom, $h\bar{u}$ an animal of the ox species; Khāmtī and Shān, $ng\bar{o}$; Siamese, $ng\bar{u}a$; Shān, also, $w\bar{o}$.
 - (d) Ähom j becomes Khāmtī and Shān y. Thus,—

Ähom.	Khāmtī.	Shān.	English.	
jān	jān		ask.	
\boldsymbol{jau}	yau	yau	completion.	
$m{j}ar{u}$ or $ar{u}$		yu	abide.	
(e) Ähom ini	tial \hat{n} becomes Khā	mtī and Shān y .	Thus,—	
Āhom.	Khāmtī.	Shān.	English.	
ñāng	$y\bar{a}ng$	$y\bar{a}ng$	be.	
ñüng ying		ying	female.	
	1		1	

(f) In Khāmtī and Shān, n and l are freely interchangeable. Hence we sometimes find an \bar{A} hom n represented by l, as in \bar{A} hom niu, a finger; Khāmtī liu; Shān niu.

(g) Ähom r becomes h in Khāmtī and Shān. Thus,—

.07					
Āhom.	Khāmtī.	Shān.	English.		
rai	hai	hai	lose.		
$rar{a}k$		$har{a}k$	compassion. Siamese rāk.		
rāng	hāng	$har{a}ng$	a tail.		
rang	háng	hång	shout.		
rau	hau	$har{a}w$	we. Siamese rau.		
rik		hik	call. Siamese rik.		
$rar{o}$	ħδ	ħō	head. Siamese huā.		
rün	hün	hün	house. Siamese rüen.		
	·)			

It will be seen that Siamese usually retains the r.

• In other respects the phonology of Ahom agrees very closely with those of Khāmtī and Shān.

Tones.—Āhom, like the modern Tai languages, undoubtedly used tones. Not only is this to be gathered from analogy, but there is a distinct tradition to the same effect. Unfortunately, so far as I have been able to ascertain, tradition is silent as to what tones were used with words, nor is there, as in Siamese, any system of indicating them in the written character. It would be a vain task to attempt to show what tones were used by quoting the analogy of the modern cognate forms of speech, for, in these, the same

word may have different tones in different languages. Moreover, in the one word, the tones of which I have been able to ascertain, they differ from those in use in Khāmtī and Shān. This is the word $m\bar{q}$, which, when it means 'a horse', has in Āhom a long tone, and in Khāmtī an abrupt tone, while $m\bar{q}$, a dog, has in Āhom an abrupt tone, but in Khāmtī and Shān a rising inflection.

Articles.—There does not seem to be any word which performs the function of a definite article. Probably a demonstrative pronoun can be used when required. For the indefinite article the numeral ling, one, is employed. Thus, $k\bar{u}n$ - $ph\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}ng$, person male one, a man. In Khāmtī, \bar{u} is prefixed to $l\bar{u}ng$ in this sense, but this does not appear to be the case in Ahom. The Interrogative-Indefinite Pronoun $phra\bar{u}$ is used to mean 'a certain'.

Nouns.—Gender.—Ahom words when performing the functions of nouns have no gender. When, in the case of living creatures, it is required to distinguish sex, this is done by compounding the main word with another word meaning 'male' or 'female'. The words most commonly used with human beings are $ph\bar{u}$ for the masculine, and $m\bar{\iota}$ for the feminine. Thus, $k\bar{u}n$, a person; $k\bar{u}n-ph\bar{u}$, person male, man; $kun-m\bar{\iota}$, person female, woman. Other words used are lik, for the masculine, and $n\bar{u}ng$ for the feminine. Examples are $kh\bar{u}$, slave; $kh\bar{u}-lik$, a male servant; $kh\bar{u}-n\bar{u}ng$, a female servant. With nouns of relationship $m\bar{u}n$ and $n\bar{u}ng$ are used. Thus, po or $po-m\bar{u}n$, a father; $n\bar{u}ng$, a younger brother or sister; $n\bar{u}ng-m\bar{u}ng$, a younger brother; $n\bar{u}ng-n\bar{u}ng$ or $n\bar{u}ng-n\bar{u}ng$, a younger sister; luk, a child; $luk-m\bar{u}n$, a son; $luk-n\bar{u}ng$, a daughter. In words like $po-m\bar{u}ng$ instead of po, the $m\bar{u}ng$ is said to give the idea of respect.

In the case of irrational animals $th\ddot{u}k$ indicates the male sex, and me the female. Thus,—

 $m\bar{\alpha}$ -thük, horse $m\bar{\alpha}$ -me, mare. $m\bar{\alpha}$ -thük, dog $m\bar{\alpha}$ -me, bitch. $h\bar{u}$ -thük, bull $h\bar{u}$ -me, cow.

 $pe-ng\bar{a}-th\ddot{u}k$, he-goat $pe-ng\bar{a}-me$, she-goat. $t\bar{u}-ng\bar{\iota}-th\ddot{u}k$, male deer $t\bar{u}-ng\bar{\iota}-me$, female deer.

In other Tai languages, the following words are used to indicate gender:-

			- Comment of the Comment				Khāmtī.	Shān.	Siamese,
Male human beings			•				chai	chai	xai.
Female ditto							ying	ying	sāu, ha-ñing.
Male irrational anima	ls			•	•		thük	po	$tua-phar{u}.$
Female ditto	•	•					$mar{e}$	me	tua-mia.

In some instances in \bar{A} hom, as in other Tai languages, difference of gender is expressed by the use of different words. Thus po, father; me, mother.

Number.—Usually the idea of plurality is left to be inferred from the nature of the sentence. If, however, it is necessary to express it, this is generally done by prefixing the word *khau*, which is also used as the plural of the third personal pronoun, meaning 'they'.

The same word is used in Khāmtī and Shān. Examples of its use are, khau khām-kulā, servants; khau mün, rejoicings; khau po, fathers. Or some noun of multitude, such as phring, a crowd, may be added, as in kūn phring, people. With numerals, no sign of number is required. Thus, shāng kūn, two persons.

Case.—The relations of case are indicated by composition with some other word or by position.

The Nominative is either the bare form of the word, or else, optionally, takes the suffix ko. This ko possibly gives a definite force to the noun to which it is attached; at least, every noun to which it is attached in the specimens has that force. It is especially common with pronouns. It is possibly connected with the Shān ko, a person, or with the Khāmtī ko, also. Examples of the use of the nominative are,—

(a) Without ko.

luk-ngī lāt-khām, the younger son said. po-mān pān-kān, the father began to divide.

(b) With ko.

po-mān-ko rün āk mā, the father came outside the house. pān-kū luk-ko rai-dai, which son lost, the son who lost.

In Khāmtī and Siamese the nominative takes no suffix. Shān may suffix nai, chām, or chüng. In all these languages, as in Āhom, the nominative usually stands first in the sentence after the introductory particles. Ko occurs in Shān as a suffix in words like lāng-ko, another.

When a noun is the direct object of a sentence, that is to say when it is in the Accusative case, it takes no suffix or prefix. Thus,

mān-ko hung ngin, he sound hear, he heard a sound.

nung-tang khiip tin-khau, put shoe foot-on, put shoes on (his) feet.

The accusative sometimes takes the suffix mai (vide post). In the specimens, this is confined to pronouns.

The above examples show that the accusative sometimes precedes, and sometimes follows, the word performing the function of a verb.

The accusative takes no suffix in Khāmtī, Shān, or Siamese; but, in Khāmtī, it also freely takes mai. In Shān it can take the suffix ching, when it is wished to give the word a definitive meaning. In Shān, as in Āhom, it sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the word performing the function of a verb. In Khāmtī it usually precedes, and in Siamese it usually follows.

The relationship of the *Instrumental* case is indicated by prefixing $t\bar{a}ng$, with. Thus, $t\bar{a}ng$ $kh\hat{a}n$, (beat him) with a cudgel; $t\bar{a}ng$ shai, (bind him) with a rope.

 $T\bar{a}ng$ properly means 'with', 'in company with'. In Khāmtī it appears to have only this meaning. In Shān, it appears to have only the meaning of the instrumental. The Khāmtī prefix of the instrumental is au.

The relationship of the Dative case is indicated by prefixing the word $t\bar{\imath}$, meaning 'place', hence 'the place or object to which motion is directed'. As explained below, $t\bar{\imath}$ in Shān is also used to indicate the Ablative, as meaning 'the place from which motion is begun'. The same word is used to form the future tense of words performing the function of verbs. Examples of the dative are,—

tī po kau, (I will go) to my father.

tī mān rün, to his house.

tī nai luk-tām Kāshmīr, to here from Kashmir.

Ti is used as a dative prefix in Khāmtî and Northern Shān. In Siamese it becomes $t\bar{e}$. In Southern Shān the word used is $l\bar{a}k$, but $k\bar{a}-t\bar{i}$, place-place, is also employed. See ablative below.

The relationship of the *Ablative* case is indicated by prefixing *luk* or *luk-tām*, as in *luk po-lüng*, from a father; *luk-tām Dhonīrām*, from Dhanirām; *luk-tām Kāshmīr*, (how far is it to here) from Kashmīr.

 $T\bar{a}m$ means 'place', and luk probably means the same. $L\bar{u}k$ - $t\bar{a}m$, like the Shān $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$, is a couplet meaning, literally, 'place'. Hence it means the source of an action, and is used to mean 'from'. In Shān $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$ as meaning 'place', also means the place or object to which motion is directed. It is hence used also as a prefix of the Dative, and whether the Ablative or the Dative is meant has to be determined from the context. In Khāmtī luk is used as the prefix of the Ablative.

The relationship of the *Genitive* is indicated by the juxtaposition of the governed and governing word, the governed word being placed last. Thus, *kip khau*, husk rice *i.e.*, husk of rice; *ān phūk mā*, saddle white horse, the saddle of the white horse.

This order of words to express the genitive is typical of all the Tai languages. It also occurs in the Mon-Khmēr languages including Khassi, but in the Tibeto-Burman languages it is reversed.

In a few instances in the specimens the genitive precedes the governing noun. I am unable to explain how this occurs. The rule is so universal in its application that I am inclined to suspect mistakes on the part of the translator. The instances are,—

kau po-mān rün, I father house, my father's house. Here kau precedes instead of following po-mān, and po-mān, which is also in the genitive precedes rün.

mān rün, (in) he house, in his house. Here mān precedes rün.

tī mān rün, place he house, to his house. Here mān again precedes rün.

kau chau rün, former owner house, former owner's house. Here chau precedes rün.

po maii riin, father thou house, thy father's house. Here po maii, thy father, is according to rule; but it should follow, not precede, riin.

It may be noted that in each of these examples, the main governing word is the same, rin, a house, and this may have something to say to it. In Shān, however, we find sentences like hün kun-chü nān, house men those, the house of those men, which is according to rule.

The most usual way of expressing the *Locative* case is to employ the noun by itself, leaving the meaning to be gathered from the context. Thus,

haŭ müng-bān tāk-ip-tāk āk-jau, (in) that country famine arose. nung-tāng mü chī-rāp-chāp-khāp-bai, put (on) hand a ring.

rau-ko hit-mün hit-khün ū chaü koi, we rejoicing merry-making been heart have, we have been rejoicing (in) heart.

 $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, said day, (on) the day referred to.

The force of the Locative is made explicit by the use of an appropriate verb of motion. Thus,

phū-ai luk-mān nā-din shaii ū-koi, the elder son field enter been-has, the elder son had entered the field, i.e., was in the field. Here it is impossible to say whether shaii should be considered as a postposition or as a verb,—a typical example of Tai idiom. Similarly we have,—

mān-ko rün bau mā-khau, he house not came-enter, he did not come into the house. Here khau is part of the compound verb mā-khau, but that is only an accident of its position. If it had been after rün, it would have been a postposition meaning 'in'.

In the following khau has come definitely to perform the function of a pre- or post-position:—

nā-kip khau, into the field.

tin khau, on the feet.

khau shun, into the compound.

khau mü, on the hand.

khau kāchāri, in the court.

khau ā-nān rün, in that house.

In Khāmtī the Locative is formed by suffixing mai.

The *Vocative* is formed by suffixing ai (which is always written $h\bar{q}$), as in po ai, O father.

The prefixes and suffixes mentioned above are usually omitted when no ambiguity would occur-

There is one suffix still to be dealt with. It occurs only in Khāmtī and Āhom. It is mai. In Khāmtī it is used as a suffix of the accusative, dative, and locative. In Āhom it seems to be used generally as a kind of indicator of an oblique case, that is to say, that the noun to which it is suffixed is not in the nominative case. Thus it is used for the accusative in kau-mai po-ū, beats me, I am beaten, to distinguish it from kau po-ū, I beat; for the instrumental in kau-mai bai shaü-hing-jau-ō, by me watching used to be done. Similarly with the preposition ān, before, we have ān kau-mai, before me. When used as a genitive, it is said to be employed only as a genitive absolute; thus, kau-mai, mine, not 'my'. So kūn-phū ling haü ming-mai, person-male one that country-of, a man of that country.

Adjectives.—In all the Tai languages a word performing the function of an adjective follows the word it qualifies. It thus occupies the same position as a word in the genitive. Examples in Ahom are,—

müng jau, country distant, a far country.

phū ai, male elder, an elder male person.

rün noi, small house.

kūn dī phū lung, person good male one, a good man.

kūn dī mī lüng, person good female one, a good woman.

In one instance (sentence No. 226) we have $ph\ddot{u}k$ $m\ddot{q}$, white horse, in which the adjective precedes the noun qualified. If this is not a mistake, I am unable to say how it occurs. Perhaps it is due to Tibeto-Burman influence.

In the Tibeto-Burman languages the adjective may either follow or precede the noun it qualifies. In Khassi it precedes.

Comparison.—Comparison is formed with the word $kh\tilde{u}\tilde{n}$ or $ki\tilde{n}$ (pronounced $kh\tilde{u}n$ or ken), which means 'be better'. The thing with which comparison is made is put in the ablative governed by luk. Thus, $d\tilde{i}$, good; $kh\tilde{u}\tilde{n}$ $d\tilde{i}$ luk, better than.

The superlative is expressed by adding $n\bar{a}m$, many, or $t\bar{a}ng$, all. Thus $kh\bar{u}\hat{n}$ $d\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{a}m$, better (than) many; $kh\bar{u}\hat{n}$ $d\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{a}m$ $n\bar{a}m$, better (than) many; $kh\bar{u}\hat{n}$ $d\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{a}ng$ $n\bar{a}m$, better (than) all many; all these meaning 'best'.

Khiñ is also used to form the comparative in Khāmtī and Shān. In Siamese ying is used.

The Numerals are given in the list of words. To those there shown may be added ship pit (pet), ten eight, eighteen; shang shau, two twenty, twenty-two.

Generic words may be added to numerals as in most Tibeto-Burman languages. They are very numerous in all the Tai forms of speech. Frankfurter, in his Siamese Grammar, gives a list of about thirty. Needham, in his Khāmtī Grammar, gives a list of about twelve common ones. Cushing, in his Shān Grammar, gives a list of forty-five, and specially says that it is not complete.

These indicate the quality of the noun which is counted. Thus, one word is used when human beings are counted, another when animals are counted, another when flat things, another when round things, and so on. The word 'piecee' in Pigeon English, as in 'one piecee man' for 'one man', and the word 'head', when we talk of 'six head of cattle', are something like generic words.

Owing to the scanty materials available, only a few examples can be given of their use in Ahom:

 $k\bar{u}n$, a person, is used in counting human beings, as $k\bar{u}n ph\bar{u} l \bar{u}ng$, person male one, one man; $k\bar{u}n m\bar{\iota} l \bar{u}ng$, person female one, one woman; luk- $m\bar{u}n sh\bar{u}ng$ $k\bar{u}n$, son two persons, two sons.

tū, a body, used in counting animals, as in tū shāng-shaü mü, body two-twenty pig; or mü shāng-shaü tü, pig two-twenty body, both meaning twenty-two pigs.

From the above, the rule appears to be that if 'one' is the numeral, the generic word precedes it. In other cases, either the generic word precedes and the thing counted follows the numeral, or *vice versa*.

In Khāmtī, when no generic word is used, the numeral precedes the noun. When one is used, the numeral follows the noun. Thus, $sh\bar{a}m$ $kh\bar{u}n$, three nights, but $h\bar{u}n$ $h\bar{a}-l\bar{u}ny$, house five-habitations, five houses. In Shān, the rule regarding 'one' is the same as in $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom. In other cases, the thing counted precedes, and the generic word follows, the numeral. Thus $m\bar{u}k$ - $ch\bar{u}k$ $h\bar{u}$ - $hu\bar{n}$, orange five-round-things, five oranges.

Pronouns.—The *Personal Pronouns* have different forms for the singular and for the plural. In other respects they are treated exactly like nouns substantive. They are as follows. I give the Khāmtī, Shān, and Siamese forms for the sake of comparison:—

Āhom.	Khāmtī and Shān.	Siamese.	English.		
kau.	kau.	kū.	I.		
rau.	hau.	rau.	we.		
$ma\ddot{u}$.	mau.	mung.	thou.		
<i>ร</i> โเน๊.	shū.	sū.	ye.		
mān.	mān.	man.	he, she, it.		
khau or mān-khau.	khau or mān-khau.	khan.	they		
-					

In the above, the suffix mai forms a genitive absolute, as in kau-mai, mine.

A dependent genitive sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the governing noun. It follows in—

po kau, my father.
luk-mān maii (also maii luk-mān), thy son.
náng maii, thy younger brother.
po maii, thy father.

khráng shü, your property.

po-mān mān, his father.

luk-mān-ko mān, his son.

shun mān, his compound.

khring bai mān, on his body.

māk-mo-máng mān, his mango fruit.

It precedes in—

kau po-mān, my father. kau kun-rik-tai, my friends. kau tāng-lai, everything of mine. kau hū-me, my cow. kau au-chau, my uncle. maü luk-mān (and luk-mān maü), thy son. mail nong-man, thy younger brother. maii po-mān, thy father. maii tāng-lai khām, all thy gold. maü chü, thy name. mān luk, his son. $m\bar{a}n \ r\ddot{u}n$, (at) his house. tī mān rün, to his house. mān shaii náng-ñiing, his grown-up younger sister. mān náng, his younger sister. man nang-man, his younger brother.

Note that $m\bar{a}n$ is to be distinguished from the pleonastic syllable $m\bar{a}n$ added to nouns of relationship, like $po-m\bar{a}n$, a father; $luk-m\bar{a}n$, a son.

The Demonstrative Pronouns are nai, ān-nai, this, and nān, ā-nān, ān-nān, that. Examples are, tām-nai, from this, then; mü-nai, time this, then; tī-nai, place this, here, now; ā-nān bai-lāng, after that; luk-phraii maii khān-shii ā-nān aii, from whom did you buy that? ān-nān khām, that word; ā-nān tun, that tree. With regard to ā-nān and ān-nān, the latter is certainly the original form. In the Tai languages, when two words are compounded, and the first word ends, and the next begins, with the same letter, one of these letters may be optionally elided. There are numerous examples of this in the modern languages. This is of importance in analyzing the meanings of compound words.

Nai and $n\bar{a}n$ also occur in both Khāmtī and Shān. The Siamese words are ni, this, and $n\bar{o}n$, that.

We have also in Ahom, but not apparently in the other Tai languages, $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$, this, and haü, that. I have only met them used as adjectives, but always preceding the word they qualify. They are not impossibly borrowed from Assamese. Examples are $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ luk-mān, this son; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ luk maü, this thy son; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ náng maü, this thy younger brother; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ sho-khām, this complaint; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ mā, this horse; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$ ān phūk mā, this saddle of the white horse; $\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$, trā, this rupee; haü müng-bān, (in) that country; haü müng-mai, of that country; haü-kūn-phū, that man. $\bar{I}-\bar{u}$ is explained as a compound of $\bar{\imath}$, one (?) and \bar{u} , is.

The Relative Pronoun is $p\bar{a}n-k\bar{u}$, as in kip khau $p\bar{a}n-k\bar{u}$ mü haü-kin-klin, the husks of rice which (to) the swine he gave to eat; $p\bar{a}n-k\bar{u}$ luk-ko rai-dai, which son lost, the son who lost; $h\bar{u}$ -me $p\bar{a}n-k\bar{u}$ kau $kh\bar{a}n$ -jau, the cow which I bought.

The Khāmtī, Shān, and Siamese Relative Pronoun is an. I am unable to find any word resembling $p\bar{a}n$ - $k\bar{u}$ in those languages. In Khāmtī, $ph\bar{a}n$ means 'what sort'.

The Interrogative Pronouns are phraw, who?; and shang, $k\bar{a}$ -shang, $r\bar{e}$, what? Thus, lik- $kh\bar{a}$ phraw, whose boy?; luk phraw, from whom?; phraw-nai, what now, when?; $k\bar{a}$ -shang (sic) khau- $m\bar{u}n$ $b\bar{a}k$ $kh\bar{a}m$ o, what merriments mean word, what do these merry-makings mean?; $ma\bar{u}$ $ch\bar{u}$ $k\bar{a}$ -shang \bar{u} , your name what is, what is your name? $R\bar{e}$ is given on the authority of Hodgson. One of the foregoing sentences ends in o. This is an interrogative particle which cannot be translated. It simply gives an interrogative force to the sentence.

Phraü appears in Khāmtī and Shān in the form of phaü. Both have kā-shāng.

Phraü appears also as an Indefinite Pronoun, as in phraü $n\bar{a}$ -kip, a certain field; phraü bau, anyone not, no one.

 $K\bar{a}$ -shāng means 'how many 'in; $k\bar{a}$ -shāng $p\bar{\imath}$, how many years? Similarly phraü kun-phring, what person-multitude, how many persons?

Verbs.—Subject to the remarks in the general introduction to this group, the relations of mood and tense can be indicated in the following way:—

The Simple Present takes no particle. It is always the word performing the function of the verb, standing alone. Thus, po kau $j\bar{u}$ khau \bar{a} -nān rün noi, my father lives $(j\bar{u})$ in that small house.

The tense is indicated in the same manner in all Tai languages.

The Present Definite is formed by adding \bar{u} , remain, after the word performing the function of a verb, as in, $m\bar{a}n n\bar{a}ng-\bar{u} n\bar{o} m\bar{q}-l\bar{u}ng$, he is sitting $(n\bar{a}ng, \sin)$ on a horse.

In Khāmtī \bar{u} is added. In Shān $y\bar{u}$, and in Siamese $\bar{u}y\bar{u}$.

The Imperfect is formed by adding \bar{u} -jau, i.e., the past tense of \bar{u} . Thus kau po- \bar{u} -jau, I was striking.

The Past tense is formed by adding, after the word performing the function of a verb, either jau or $k\bar{a}$.

In Ähom both jau and $k\bar{a}$ are used indifferently for the Past tense. In Khāmti and Shān, yau, like the Siamese $l\bar{e}u$, indicates the perfect rather than past tense generally. In Siamese $l\bar{e}u$ is put at the end of the sentence, but lai, which corresponds to it in Shān, unlike jau or yau, precedes the verb. In Khāmti $k\bar{a}$ also gives the force of the past tense, as in Āhom, but not in Shān. I do not know the original meaning of $k\bar{a}$, when used as a past sign. Possibly, like $t\bar{i}$ of the future, it means 'place'. $T\bar{i}$ indicates the place or scope to which action proceeds, and $k\bar{a}$ might mean the place from which it proceeds. Compare the use of $k\bar{a}$ for both the dutive and the ablative in Shān. Jau means 'completion'.

It is in the past tense that the tense particle is most often widely separated from the word performing the function of the verb.

The following examples occur of this tense in the specimens:—

(a) Applied direct to the word performing the function of the verb. rai-dai-jau, lost, I, 7; was lost, I, 54.
ák-jau, arose, I, 10.
dip-dī-jau, was alive and well, I, 15.
hān-jau, saw, I, 23; II, 11, 18.
chum-kān-jau, began to kiss, I, 24.
bā-jau, said, I, 50.
tai-jau, died, I, 53.

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dai-jau, was got, I, 54; was obliged, II, 5.
khān-jau, bought, II, 3.
pai-kā-jau, went, II, 7.
pin-jau, became, II, 7.
kā-jau, went, II, 10.
khāt-jau, seized, II, 14.
mā-jau, came, II, 15.
ū-jau, was, 162 and ff.
po-jau, struck, 185 and ff.; was struck, 203.
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(b) Separated from the root.

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dai (mān) jau (cf. dai-jau, above), (he) possessed, I, 1.

pān-kān (tāng-lai . . . klāng sháng pī náng) jau, divided (all between the two brothers), I, 3.

phū (phān) jau, floated (on poverty), I, 10.

pai-kā-mā (tī po-mān) jau, went (to his father), I, 21.

ū (tāng nī) jau, was (distant), I, 22. Cf. ū-jau, above.

bā (mān) jau (cf. mān bā-jau, I, 50), said (to him), I, 37.

haü (phâk-lüng khau) jau, gave (a feast to them), I, 38.

hān (mān) jau, saw her, II, 12. Cf. hān-jau, above.
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As already seen, \bar{u} -jau, the past of \bar{u} , remain, be, is used to form the imperfect.

 $K\bar{a}$ (or, as it is written in I, 11, $k\bar{a}$) occurs in the following cases. In every instance it is attached directly to the word performing the function of a verb. It should be distinguished from the word $k\bar{a}$, go, which is frequently compounded with pai, go, so as to form a couplet, as in $pai-k\bar{a}-jau$ (II, 7), or $k\bar{a}-jau$ (II, 10), went.

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b\bar{a}-k\bar{a}, said, II, 13, 15.

lau-k\bar{a}, told, II, 16.

pai-k\bar{a}, went, I, 5, 11 (k\bar{a}); II, 1, 6, 17; 211 and ff.

phrai-k\bar{a}, went, II, 8.

rdng-hai-k\bar{a}, shouted aloud, II, 13.

tuk-k\bar{a}, fell, II, 11.
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The *Perfect* is formed by adding *koi* after the word performing the function of a verb.

As already stated, K hāmtī forms the perfect by adding yau after the verb. So also Shān, which may also, however, prefix lai, with or without yau following the verb. Koi means 'come to an end, be used up'.

The following are examples of the perfect:-

```
dip-dī-koi, has become alive and well, I, 30, 54.

ū-koi, has been, was, I, 33.
dai (khun-dī) koi, has got (him in good health), I, 39.
bau lu-koi, have not disobeyed, I, 44.
jū-koi, hast lived, I, 51.
dai (chām) koi, (and) hast possessed, I, 52.
pin-koi, it happened, II, 9.
(kau) po (mān luk tāng khān) koi, (I) have beaten (his son with many stripes), 228.
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As seen above, the perfect of \bar{u} , remain, be, is \bar{u} -koi, and this is itself, also used to render the perfect. Thus,—

khau-ū-koi, has entered, entered, I, 6.

 $m\bar{q}$ - \bar{u} -koi, has come, I, 38.

hit-mün hit-khün ū (chaü) koi, have been rejoicing in heart, I, 53.

The Pluperfect or Remote Past is indicated by suffixing o to jau of the past.

Thus,—

mān-ko tāng khráng-ling tāk-lu, tāk-pāng, kin jau-o, he had diminished, had ruined, had eaten all the property, I, 9. Here jau-o must be construed with each of the three words performing the functions of verbs viz., tāk-lu, tāk-pāng, and kin.

hit-mün hit-khün jau-o, they rejoiced and were merry, I, 32.

haü-dai (phák-lüng) jau-o, had given (a feast), I, 49.

shaü-heng-jau-o, had used, II, 4.

po-jau-o, had struck, 193.

A combination of jau and shī also gives the force of a pluperfect. Thus,—

tai-shī-jau, having died was, had died, I, 30.

phrai-jau-shī, was having gone, had gone, II, 9.

The Future is indicated by prefixing $t\bar{\imath}$ to the word performing the function of a verb. The same word is used in Khāmtī and Northern Shān. It is also used to indicate the dative and (in Shān) the ablative. Its root meaning is throughout 'place'. In the dative and future (it should be remembered that to an Āhom, who recognises no distinction between verbs and nouns, 'to going' and 'will go' represent the same idea), the word indicates the 'place' towards which action tends. In the ablative, it indicates the 'place' from which motion has started. Compare the probable use of $k\bar{a}$, 'place', to form the past tense. In Southern Shān $l\bar{a}k$ are used to form the future instead of $t\bar{\imath}$. Siamese uses cha, but has $t\bar{\imath}$ for the dative, just as Northern Shān has $t\bar{\imath}$.

In the following example, $t\bar{z}$ is separated from the word performing the function of a verb by several other words, and carries on its force into another clause without repetition.

Tī kā-nai kau-ko khün chăm, kau lāt-khām lau mān chām.

I will now both arise, and I will say words (to) him. Here $t\ddot{z}$ must be construed not only with $kh\ddot{u}n$, arise, but also with lau, say.

Another form of the future is made by suffixing $n\tilde{a}$, as in $pai-k\tilde{a}-n\tilde{a}$, will go. It is said to be rare except with this verb.

A Past Future is formed by combining a suffix of past time with the simple future, thus, $ti\ po$, will strike; $t\bar{\imath}\ po\ jau$, will have struck. Similarly with koi, we have \bar{u} - $t\bar{\imath}$ -koi, will have been.

Both these forms may also, according to context, be translated as Past Subjunctives, I should strike, I should be.

The Imperative may optionally take the particle shī, thus, bai or bai-shī, put.

The original meaning of this suffix is unknown to me. It also forms participles. Khāmtī uses $t\bar{a}$ and Shān $l\bar{a}$ for the Imperative.

The Conditional Mood is formed by shang or shang-ba, with chang in the apodosis. An example is,—

mān chāng un(uy)-chau-pláng, shāng-bā mān-ko thùn táng he would (have-been-) glad, if he (had-) filled (his-) belly kip-khau. (with-)husks-of-rige, ÄHOM. VERBS. 99

It will be seen that the words performing the functions of verbs take no special particles to indicate mood.

'If' in Khāmtī is $k\bar{a}-y\bar{e}$, added at the end of the sentence, or $sh\bar{a}ng$, $sh\bar{a}ng-w\bar{a}$. The apodosis takes $ch\bar{a}m$. In Shān 'if' is po.

An indefinite participial force is given by adding $sh\bar{\imath}$ to the word performing the function of a verb. To give it a past force o may be added (compare the pluperfect). Thus, $tai\text{-}sh\bar{\imath}$, dying; $pai\text{-}nai\text{-}sh\bar{\imath}$, going unexpectedly; $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}ng\text{-}sh\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{u}\text{-}sh\bar{\imath}$, being, having been; $sai\text{-}sh\bar{\imath}\text{-}o$, gone.

Often no particle is added, as in $b\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}n$, the said day, the day referred to.

At the same time, when it is remembered that participles are only verbal adjectives, and that it is just as easy for an Ahom word to perform the functions of an adjective as to perform those of a verb, it is stretching the terminology of Indo-European grammars too far to talk of participles at all.

Similarly, it is useless to talk of *Infinitives*. An infinitive is only a verbal noun, and an Ahom word can perform the functions of a noun as easily as it performs those of an adjective or a verb. Hence, what we should call infinitives, are only the root-word itself without any particle added. Thus $l\bar{a}k$ means 'steal', and must be translated 'to steal', in kau bau $l\bar{a}k$ pai- $k\bar{a}$, I not steal went, I did not go to steal. Similarly ai $l\bar{a}p$, shame hide, in order to hide disgrace.

Causals, inceptives, potentials, and continuatives are formed by compounding with other words. For examples, see the section on couplets and compounds above.

Number and Person.—No word performing the function of a verb ever changes its form for number or person. Both of these must be gathered from the context.

Synopsis.—To sum up, if we adopt the forms and terminology of Indo-European grammar, the following is the conjugation of the verb po, strike:—

Present - kau po, I strike.

Present Definite - kau po-ū, I am striking.

Imperfect - kau po-ū-jau, I was striking.

Past kau po or kau po-jau, I struck. Kau pai-kā, I went (there is no instance of po taking the suffix $k\bar{a}$ in

the materials available).

Perfect kau po-koi or -ū-koi, I have struck.

Pluperfect kau po-jau-o, I had struck. Future kau tī-po, I shall strike.

Future Perfect kau po-tī-koi or kau tī-po-jau, I shall have struck.

Participle Indefinite po-shī, striking.

Participle Past po-shī-o, struck.

Infinitive po, to strike.

Causal kau haü-po, I cause to strike.

Inceptive kau po-kān, I begin to strike.

Potential kau pin-po, I may, am able to, strike.

kau po-dai, I can strike, I can be struck.

Continuative kau po-oi, I strike continually.

Passive kau-mai po, beats me, I am struck.

It must be remembered that the bare root-word, by itself, can, as explained in the introduction to the family, be used for any tense.

Adverbs.—Words perform the function of adverbs, just as they do those of other parts of speech. Most of them are compounds, and the meaning of the separate members is not always very clear. Examples are,—

mü-nai, time-now, then.

khān-mā-chām, quick-come-swift, as soon as.

nā-kān-mü, previous-place-time, as usual.

 $m\bar{a}$ -laŭ-kin, ever, at any time.

The negative particles are bau, and $m\bar{a}$, not. The usual verb substantive is \bar{u} , be, but, with bau, $m\bar{t}$ is used instead. In the third specimen we have also pai, not, and pai- $m\hat{t}$, is not.

The Khāmtī negatives are ü (pronounced ün or n') and mā. Shān has ām and mau. Siamese has nai and mi.

As in other Indo-Chinese languages, the force of an adverb is most frequently obtained by compounding the word performing the function of a verb with some other word which gives it the necessary colour. Thus pai, go, nai, unexpectedness; painai, (to) go unexpectedly. So many others.

Prepositions and postpositions.—The following are examples of the way in which words perform the functions of post- or pre-positions. They can all, as usual, perform other functions as required:—

ak, outside; $r\ddot{u}n$ ak, outside the house.

bai, on (or to put); khring bai mān, on his body.

 $k\bar{a}n$ - $p\bar{a}$, place-side, towards; $m\bar{a}n$ $k\bar{a}n$ - $p\bar{a}$, towards her.

shaü (cf. khau), in (or to enter); nā-din shaü, in the field.

ān, before; ān kau-mai, before me.

ān-nā, before-before, before; maii ān-nā, before thee.

bai-lang, on-back, after; a-nan bai-lang, after that.

 $k\bar{a}$ (or $k\bar{a}$)- $l\bar{a}ng$, at-back, after; $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ bau $b\bar{a}n$ nai $n\bar{a}m$ - $n\bar{a}$, after not days now many, after a few days.

 $k\bar{a}$ -taü, at below, under; $k\bar{a}$ -taü \bar{a} -nān tun, under that tree.

klāng, middle, between; klāng sháng, between both.

pun, beyond; pun müng jau, beyond a country far, a land far away.

lun, after; lun-lang, after back, afterwards.

doiñ, with; doiñ bāng-shaü, with harlots; kau doiñ, with me; chám-doiñ joined-with, with; khā-lik chám-doiñ, amongst servants; doiñ-chám kun-rik-tai, with friends.

khau, enter, in, into, on; nā-kip khau, into the field; tin khau, on on the feet; khau shun, into the compound; khau mii, in the hand; khau ā-nān rün, in that house.

 $n\bar{a}$, before; $\bar{a}n-n\bar{a}$ (see above); $kh\bar{a}ng-n\bar{a}$, before, in the presence of.

nö or nū, above, on; nō-rō, above the head, against; phā nō-rō, against Heaven; tun-nū, on the tree; nō lāng mān, on his back; nū doi, on the top of a bill; nō mā-lüng, on a horse.

Conjunctions.—The usual word for 'and' is *chām* or *chāng*. It is most often a copula between two phrases and then usually comes between the two. It, however, appears almost anywhere in a sentence. Examples are,—

mān-ko pai-kā, chām chám-doiñ kūn-phū-lüng, he went, and associated with a man. au-mā phā kiñ-bā-dī, nung-tāng phā khring bai mān chām, fetch the best robe, and put it on his body. Here chām is at the end of the second clause.

hū chām, and the cow. Here it is the second word in the clause.

shāng kau hū-me tet chām phrai-jau-shī, and (I went to see) if my cow had gone there. Here it is the penultimate word of the clause.

khau bā-kā kau tet chāng mā-jau hān náng shaü, and they said I came there to see the younger sister. Here chāng is in the middle of a dependent clause, immediately preceding the word doing function as a verb.

tii-bā mān náng shaii ai lāp chāng mān bā, but also (chāng) he says to hide the disgrace of his younger sister.

 $Ch\bar{a}m$ $ch\bar{a}m$, means 'both . . . and ', as in kin-klin $ch\bar{a}m$, hup-bai $ch\bar{a}m$, they both consume, and lay by. In such cases $ch\bar{a}m$ is always at the end of each of the connected clauses.

Other words used with the meaning 'and' are, bā-ān, why-front, and. poi, excess, and. poi-ān, and-before, and. poi-lun-lang, again-after-back, and, moreover. The words used for 'and' in the cognate languages are, Khāmtī, ko. Shān, tāng, ik, le. Siamese, ka, lē. Other words used as conjunctions are, shāng, shāng-bā, if. tü-bā, but. chāng, indicates the apodosis of a conditional sentence. chū-chāng-nai, because, therefore. to- $l\bar{a}k$, nevertheless. pü-nāng-nai, on-account-of as this, in order that.

Interjections.—The only interjections which I have met in $\bar{\Lambda}$ hom are ai, suffixed to the vocative case and nik- $ch\bar{a}$, alas. Ai is always written $h\bar{a}$. It is a curious fact that the vocative particle is written irregularly in all the Northern Tai languages including Shān.

Order of words.—The statement that the order of words in a sentence is a characteristic peculiarity of the Tai forms of speech, and that, hence, the function which a word performs is dependent on its position in relation to other words, is only true, in full strictness, with regard to the modern languages of the group. In earlier times much greater freedom existed, and even to the present day, in Siamese, the object, although it usually follows the verb, sometimes precedes it.

See F. W. K. Müller in Z. D. M. G. xlviii, 199. Compare Conrady, Eine Indochinesische Causativ-denominativ-bildung, p. 4.

It will thus not surprise us to find that, in Ahom, there are many exceptions to the general rules which will here be laid down. We have already seen that the most typical rule of all, viz., that the genitive and the adjective follow the noun on which they are dependent, has no few exceptions in the specimens, especially in the case of pronouns.

In a simple sentence, the order is subject, complement, copula.

Thus— $\overbrace{i \cdot \bar{u} \; sho \cdot kh\bar{a}m}^{\text{Subject.}}$ $\widetilde{n} \underbrace{am}$ $\bar{u} \cdot koi$ this complaint false has-been, this complaint is false.

Similarly with an intransitive verb we have,—

Subject. Predicate. \overline{i} - \overline{i} luk-mān \overline{tai} -sh \overline{i} -jau this son was-dead.

If with such verbs there are used other words implying an adverbial relation, these precede the verb and follow the subject. Thus,—

Subject. phū-ai luk-mān nā-din shaii ũ-koi The elder son field the elder son was in the field. in was. Subject. Adverb. Verb. po-mān-ko riin ák $m\bar{a}$ the-father outsido came, the father came outside the house. house

With transitive verbs, the usual order is subject, direct object, verb. Thus,—
Subject. Verb.

luk ngî pun müng jau khau-ū-koi

son younger beyond country far entered-has, the younger son entered a foreign country.

Subject. Direct Object. Verb. khrång-ling tāk-lū, mān-ko tũng tāk-pāng, kin-jau-o allproperty diminished, He spent, eaten-had, he had diminished, spent and eaten all the property.

In one case, a pronoun in apposition to the subject is inserted between the verb and its tense suffix, viz.,—

Sometimes, when the object is a complex one, the verb is inserted immediately after its principal member. Thus,—

Direct Object. Verb. Subject. Direct Object. hung mān-ko ngin hit-mün hit-khün $k\bar{a}$ chām He soundheard (of) merriment rejoicing dancing and, he heard the sound of merriment, rejoicing, and dancing.

When an adverb qualifies such a verb, it appears to come between the verb and its tense-suffix. Thus,—

Subject. Direct Object. Verb. Adverb. Suffix.

mān-ko mān dai khūñ-dī koi.

He him get alive-well did, he got him alive and well. Here, however, what we, under the influence of Aryan grammar, are compelled to call an adverb, is really a part of the verb. $Dai-khi\tilde{n}-d\bar{\imath}$ is a compound verb meaning 'to get alive and well', and its perfect is $dai-khi\tilde{n}-d\bar{\imath}-koi$. This sentence again illustrates the difficulty of applying Aryan terminology to Indo-Chinese grammar.

When there is an indirect object so far as I can see, there is no rule except that the subject must come first. We can have,—

Subject.	Indirec	et Object.		Direct Object.				
po-mān	khau- kh	ām-kulā		phān-kh	am haü,			
the-father	(to)-the-	servants		order	gave,			
the father gave or	der to the serva	nts.			-			
Subject.	Direct Ob	ject.		Verb.	Indirect Object.			
Haü kūn-phū	phān-kh	ām		haïi	mān.			
That man	- order		8	zave	to-him.			
Subject.	Indirect Object.	Ve	rb.		Direct Object.			
Maü-ko	Maü-ko kau		haü	án	$\overrightarrow{pe ext{-}ngar{a} ext{-}l\ddot{u}ng},$			
Thou	to-me	\mathbf{not}	gavest young		goat-one,			
thou gavest not to	me one kid.							
Subject	Subject.			Object.	Adverb.			
shāng-bā			tán	ig	kip-khau, (with) husks of rice,			
If			bel	lly				
if he filled his bell	v with husks of	rice.			,			

When the verb has a tense-suffix, and either the direct or indirect object follows the verb, then it precedes the suffix. The direct or indirect object never follows the suffix.

Thus,—						
Subject.	Verb.	Dire	ct Object.	Adver	Suffix.	
kau	po	mān	luk	tāng k	hán	koi,
I	beat	his	son	(with) man	y cudgel	have,
I have beaten	his son with m	any stri	pes.			ı
Subject.	Indirect Ob	ject.	Verb.	Direct Obj	ect.	Suffix.
$ma\ddot{u}$ - ko	mān		ha ü- $dam{i}$	$phlpha k$ - $l\ddot{u}$	ng	jau-0,
\mathbf{Thou}	(to)-hin	1	${f give}$	1 0	did,	
thou gavest h	im a feast.					
Sub	ject.	\mathbf{V} erb.	Direct Object.	Indirect	Object.	Suffix.
\widetilde{maii}	pomān	$ha\ddot{u}$	$ph\'ak ext{-}l\"ung$	khau		jau,
\mathbf{Thy}	father	${f give}$	feast-one	(to)-tl	did,	
thy father gar	ve them a feast.		•			
, Dir	rect Object.		Subject.	Verb.	Indirec	t Object.
$\overline{ar{A}n ext{-}nar{a}n}$	$l\bar{a}t$ - $kh\bar{a}m$	\mathcal{D}	honī-rām	lau - $kar{a}$	$par{u}lar{v}$	sh.
That	\mathbf{word}	Dł	ianī-rām	said (to)-the		-police.
So, with intra	nsitive verbs,—					
Subject.	,	Verb.		Indirect Obj	ect.	Suffix.
mān-ko khün		chām	pai-kā-mā	tī-po-mān	n	jau,
he aris		and	go	to-the-fath	er	did,
he arose and y	went to his fathe	ŗ,			1	-1

It will thus be seen that the only general rule which we can frame is that the verbal suffix almost always comes at the end of the sentence or clause. There are only one or two exceptions, e.g., in II, 3, to this rule.

When the tense is formed by a particle preceding the verb, as in the future with $t\bar{\imath}$, we have,—

Particle.		Subject.	Verb.
Ti	$kar{a}$ -na $m{i}$	kau-ko	khün
\mathbf{W} ill	\mathbf{now}	I	arise, I will arise.

Here the principle is the same, except that the particle (as it precedes) is the first word in the sentence instead of the last. As this, however, is the only example of a future with $t\bar{\imath}$ in the specimens, we are not justified in making a general rule.

When the Direct Object is a sentence, e.g., after a verb of saying, it follows the verb, and even the suffix. Thus,—

and even the	e suffix.	. Thus,										
Subject. V			Verb.		Indirect Object.				Direct Object.			
luk n	$g\bar{i}$	lā	t-khān	\imath	po-mān,			'po ai, etc.'				
son you	$_{ m nger}$		said		(to)	the-fath	er,		'father O, etc.'			
The younger	son sa	id to the	father	, 'O father,								
Subject.		,	Indirect (ndirect Object. Verb.					Direct Object.			
mān-ko			$mar{a}$	n		<i>bā</i> -	jau,		'luk ai, etc.'			
\mathbf{he}			(to-)h	im		said	1,		'son O, etc.'			
Subject.	Ve	erb.	India	ect Object.		Adver	ь.		Direct C	,		
mān-ko	lat-kha	ām-lau	p	o-mān		phān	jāk,	· 10	ā-shāng	pī, etc.'		
${f he}$	sa	id	(to-)-	the-father	(in	-) sorror	w great,					
he said to his	s father	r in grea	t sorror	w, 'how ma	ny y	vears, etc	s., Č		•	,,,		
				erative, we								
Subject.			-	Direct Ob			Ü			Verb.		
maii-ko				kar	ı				ait-ray	o-dai-nāng.		
thou				me	3				-	take.		
Subject.				Direct O	bject.					Verb.		
maii				$khar{a}$	-lik				\overline{bai}	-chām-doin		
${f thou}$				serv	ant					eep-with,		
keep (me) w	ith (th	y) servar	ts.							1		
Verb.		Direct	Object.	Verb.		r	irect Object			Adverb.		
$a\ddot{u}$ - $mar{a}$		pha		nung-te	$ar{n}g$		$phar{a}$		khrin	g-bai-mān		
\mathbf{bring}	bring robe place robe							body-on-his,				
bring a robe,										•		
The follo	owing a	are exam	ples of	interrogati	vesc	entences						
Adverb.		, manness	New York Company Chap you have	Sub	ject.	A.S			Verb.	Direct Object.		
Kau po-mān	rün	$kh\bar{a}$ -	lik	khā-ñiin	g	phrau 1	kūn-phrir	ia	dai	khan		
					•	7				10100000		

Subject.

kau-ko

I

Direct Object.

maii

thee

Verb.

hit-boi-ū

serving-am,

how many male and female servants in my father's house possess rice.

nai

 \cdot mün

Adverb.

for how many years am I serving thee,

what year time past-time now

kā-shāng pī mü

Introductory words, such as those that perform the functions of adverbs of time and place, or of conjunctions, usually stand at the beginning of the sentence. Examples are unnecessary.

An infinitive of purpose follows the verb on which it is dependent. Thus,—

kau bau pai-kā lāk.

I not went to-steal.

kau phrai-kā khau shun mān nā-kān-mü hān-dū.

I went into compound his as-usual to-see-carefully.

kau pai-kā lāk māk-mo-máng.

I went to-steal mangos.

In Khāmtī, the order of words in a direct sentence is Subject, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Verb. In interrogative sentences the Indirect Object precedes the Direct. Interrogative pronouns rarely stand first in a sentence. Adverbs generally follow the verb (i.e., really form compounds with it). Adverbs of time usually precede the verb.

In Shān, the Subject usually precedes the verb (except when emphasis requires otherwise). The Direct Object may either precede or follow the verb. The Dative case (Indirect Object) without a particle follows the verb. If it has the dative particle it follows the Direct Object. The Ablative usually follows the verb. So also Adverbs usually follow the verb, but adverbs of time precede it as in Khāmtī.

In Siamese the Subject precedes the verb, and the Direct Object usually (but not always) follows it.

We have seen above that in Ahom the Subject almost always precedes the verb, and that both the Direct Object and the Indirect Object may either follow or precede the verb, but must always (or nearly so) precede any particle of tense which follows the verb. Similarly the subject seems to follow any particle of tense which precedes the verb. In one instance which occurs of the Indirect Object taking the prefixed particle of the dative case, it follows the verb. That is given above, but in the only other instance which occurs (tī po kau pai-kā-nā, I will go to my father), it actually precedes the subject

There remains the consideration of the mutual collocation of words in the subordinate members of a sentence. This has been already dealt with. We have seen that the genitive usually follows the word on which it is dependent, and that the adjective follows the word which it qualifies. To the latter there is one exception in the specimens, beside several cases of adjectival pronouns preceding the nouns which they define. As regards the genitive following the noun which governs it, there are numerous exceptions, especially in the case of pronouns.

It is a universal rule that the genitive follows the word on which it is dependent, and the adjective follows the word it qualifies in all the modern Shān languages. The only exceptions are adjectives borrowed from Pali, an Aryan language, which follow the Aryan custom of preceding.

The position of the conjunction *chām*, and, has been dealt with at length under the head of conjunctions. In Shān, conjunctions are placed at the beginning of the members of a sentence which they unite with other preceding members. So also in Khāmtī, but when ko, and, is used to mean 'also', it is put after the noun to which it refers.

The following three specimens of Ahom consist of (1) the Parable of the Prodigal Son, translated by Babu Golab Chundra Barua; (2) a translation of the statement of an accused person, made by the same gentleman; and (3) an Ahom account of the Cosmogony of the universe taken from the sixth volume of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

[No. I.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AHOM.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

(Babu Golab Chundra Barua, 1899.)

मार्ते म्हारा मध्येष का मार्त है धर्म प्रिंगियों में मार्त हैं एक में भी मार्त हैं एक भी मार्थ के मार्थ में मार्थ में मार्थ के मार्थ के मार्थ के मार्थ के मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों में मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों में मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों के मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों पर्व मार्थ के मिर्टा परि मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों प्रेंगियों के मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रिंगियों प्रिंगियों के मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रेंगियों के मिर्टा प्रेंगियों के मार्थ के मिर्टा प्रेंगियों के मिर्टा प्रेंगियों के मिर्टा मिर्

पर र कि में प्रकार कार मिर अहे का मार का कार के पर

भी के यह भारता। भी की के भी से हिंग के का भी के का भी

[No. I.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

$\vec{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{O}\mathbf{M}$.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

(Babu Golab Chundra Barua, 1899.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

	Ki	·	phū-1],,]	lz-mā	in	2-1	ໝົກ	dei	mān-jau	. Po	oi luk		ngī	
	K_{ℓ}		phū-1 luk-mān 2-kūn phū-lüng sháng-ku					CLOIL-	man-Jau)1 1UL	•	<u>п</u> 8-		
	Per		male-one	U	son				pos	sess-he-did.	nd son	y	ounger		
	lāt khā	im po	-mān,	ʻ po	hā, ai,	dai		âng r <i>áng</i>	ling j			jân-shū	ân-shū haü-aü-dai		
	said wo	rd (to)	-father,	'father	0,	possess		property	small-	property-ar	d-cattle	ask-wish g	ive-take	-possess	
	pān n		āng lāng		8	2 háng			•	nâng'.		po-mā	ı pā	n-kān	
,	divide t	hou m	iddle (i.e.	. between	1)	two			brother	r younger'.	And	the-fathe	r divi	de-begin	
	tāng-la	i khâ <i>khrá</i>	_		ling	S		kāng <i>klāng</i>	2 shán		рī	ná	ing	jau.	
	all-all	large-pr	operty	small-pro	perty	-and-ca	ttle l	etween	two	elder-	brother			er did.	
											Poi	k ā-l ā:	ng	bāw bau	
											And	at-back (i.	e. after)	not	
5.	bān r	nai nā	im-nā	luk	ngī	tār	_	khâng <i>khráng</i>		ling		aü-d	lai :	p ai-kā	
	days r	now man	ny-very	son y	ounge	r all	l lar	ge-prope	rty sma	all-property	-and-catt	take-po	esess	go-did	
	\mathbf{pun}	mün	g	jau	k	hau-i	ū-koi	•	Māi	n-ko	luk	lau		ü-kin	
	be y ond	countr	y d	listant		enterec	l-has.		I	T e	liquid	spirit		tako-eat	
	chām	kün· <i>ku</i>		bāng	đ	loiñ-k	kān		pā	ī-kān		tāng		àng 'áng	
	• and	person-	female	harlot		with-be	gin	accom	pany-m	utually (cop	pulate)	all		property	
]	ling	ra	i-dai	
										sn	all-prop	orty-and-ca	ttle los	889880 G- 28	
	jau.	Phai	i-n a i	mān	-ko 1	tāng		khâr	œ	lin		•	tāk-l	_	
	Jau.		raü					khrán	U		-0				
	did.	Wh	en	he		all	lai	ge-prope	erty s	small-proper	rty-and-c	attle bed tāk-pā	ome-din ng	ninished	
												become-rr	ined (i.	e. spent)	
	kin-ja	u-0,	tit		ch	ām		haï	L	mü	ng-bār	1	tāk-ip	-tāk	
	eaten-	had,	tet ther		a	nd		that	i	count	try-villag	ge becon		1e-misery	

- 15. २०० है यह नेना है ये हैं छी। यह का मार्ट ने मह के मूर्य के कैं।
 भी मा महे दे की महे की महे वह मी मह में मह के मूर्य के कैं।
 ये मार्ट ने महे हैं की महे वह मी महे में मह में के मूर्य के कैं।
 ये ने मार्ट के महे हैं की महे वह मी के के के के ने मह में मार्ट के मार्ट ने मार्ट मार्ट मार्ट ने मार्ट मार्ट मार्ट ने मार्ट मार्ट

ÄHOM. 109

```
lun-läng
                                                                                             mān-ko
                                                                  Poi
                               phū
                                           phän
10. åk-jau,
                 mān-ko
                                                      jau.
                                                                          after-back (then)
                                                                                                 he
                                         (on) poverty
                                                       did.
                                                                 Again
     arise-did.
                    he
                                float
                                                                                                Haü
                                                                              müng-mai.
     pai-kā,
                  chām
                             châm-doiñ
                                              kūn
                                                        phū-1
                                                                    haü
                                              kun
                                                         lüng
                                                                                                 That
                                                                               country-of.
      go-did,
                    and
                              join(ed)-with
                                                        male-one
                                                                    that
                                              person
                                                                            nā-kip
                                                                                       khau
                                                                                                haü-
                    phān-khām
                                    haü
                                            mān
                                                     mü
                                                            lik
                                                                   phaü
     kūn phū
                                                                  phra\ddot{u}
     kun
                                                                            field-plot
                                                                                        into
                                                                                                 cause-
                       order-word
                                           (to-)him
                                                    swine
                                                            tend
                                                                    some
            male
                                     gave
    person
                                                                           shāng-bā
                                                                                             mān-ko
                                     chāng
                                                   un-chau-pang
    -oi-kin-klin;
                         m\bar{a}n
                                                    uy-chaü-pláng
            klen:
                                                   gladness-mind-clear
                                                                               if
                                                                                                he
    -continue-eat-drink;
                          he
                                      would
                                                                                phau (sic)
             tâng
                                                           haü-kin-klin;
                                                                                                 bāw
    thün
                     kip-khau
                                    pān-kū
                                                 mü
                                                                    klen;
                                                                               phraü
                                                                                                 bau
              belly
                                                            caused-eat-drink;
                                                                                anyone
                                                                                                 not
      fill
                     husk-(of)-rice
                                      which
                                                (to)-swine
                                                                                                 Poi
                                                                             jāng-haü-dai.
                                                                                                 Poi
                                                                                                 And
                                                                               be-give-possess.
                                                                                                 khā-
                               dīp-dī-jau,
                                                       bā,
                                                               ' kāw
                                                                          po-mān
                                                                                       rün
15. phaü-nai
                  mān-ko
                                               m\bar{a}n
                                                                · kau
    phraü-
                               dip
                                                                           father's
                               alive-well-was,
                                                       said,
                                                                                       house
                                                                                               servant-
                                                                 ' mv
       when
                     he
                                                he
                                                             kin
                                                                   klin
                                                                                     hūp-bai-chām,
                       phaü kun-phing
                                                                           chām
     -lik khā-ñüng
                                               dai
                                                     khau
                       phraü kun-phring
                                                                                      hup-bai-chām,
                                                                    klen
                                                                                      collect-place-also,
                        what
                              person-multitude possess
                                                              eat
                                                                   drink
                                                                            and
    -male servant-female
                                                                  nai
                                                                         kāw-ko
                                                                                     khün
                                                                                              chām,
                     tai-shī
                                 \operatorname{dit}
                                       kāng tâng.
                                                       Ti
                                                            kā
     poi
          kāw-ko
                                                                            kau
                                det
                                       klāng táng.
             kau
                     dy-ing (from) pressure within belly.
                                                        Will at
                                                                                                and,
                                                                 here (now)
     and
              Ι
                                                   lāt-khām
                                                                         mān
                                                                                 chām,
                                                                                          " po
                                                                                                  hặ,
                                            kāw
                                                                 lau
              kāw
                     pai-kā-nā
                                   chām,
     tī
         ро
                                                                                                  ai,
                                            kau
                                                        khām
                                   cham,
              kau
                                                                        (to)-him
                                                                                  and,
                                                                                          "father O,
                                                                 speak
     to father of-me
                       go-go-will
                                    and,
                                                     say-word
                                                                                    kāw-ko
                                                  maü ān-nā
                                                                   chām;
                                                                              poi
                                                                                               bāw-
                                        chām,
                                    rō
     kāw-ko
               phit
                      phā
                             nō
                                                                                       kau
                                                                                                bau-
       kau
                                                   thou presence before and;
                                   head
                                          and,
        1
               sin(ned)
                       sky
                            above
                                                                         kāw
                                                                                   aŭ-râp-dai-nāng
                                                           maü-ko
                                              maü:
                      bā
                              luk-män
20. mi
             jâk
                                                                         kau
                                                                                take-bind-possess-continue
                    (to-)call
                                             (of-)thee:
                                                             thou
                                                                          me
            worthy
                                 son
     am
                     khā-lik
                                                          Poi mān-ko khun chām pai-kā-mā
                                bai
                                      châm
                                              doiñ."
     chām maü
                                                                            arise
                                                                                    and
                                                                                           go-go-come
                                      join(ed)
                                                with."'
                                                           And
                                                                   \mathbf{h}\mathbf{e}
                   servant-male
                                place
       and
              thou
                                                                                        jau,
                                                                                 \mathbf{n}ī
                                                                                                mān
                                                      mān-ko
                                                                   ū
                                                                        tāng
          po-mān
                      jau.
                              Tü-bā
                                         phaü-nai
                                        phraü-nai
                                                                         road
                                                                                distant
                                                                                        (was),
                                                                                                 him
                                But
                                           when
                                                         he
                                                                   was
           father
                                            rāk-kān
                                                         chām,
                                                                   khân
                                                                           pai
                                                                                  mü
                                                                                           kât
                                                                                                 kho
                       hān-jau chām,
     po-mān mān
                                   and, compassion-feel-(did)
                                                                    quick go(-did) (with) hand embrace neck
                                                           and,
              (of-)him
                         see-did
                                                                                    kāw-ko
                                                                             hā,
                                                                                                 phit
                                                                     ʻ po
     chum-kān-jau.
                           Poi
                                  luk-mān-ko
                                                   mān
                                                            bā,
                                                                                       kau
                                                                              ai,
                                                                                     / I
                                                                    father
                                                                              O.
                                                                                               sin(ned)
                                                   (of-)him
                                                            said,
                           And
                                     (the-)son
        kiss-begin did.
```

25. २०१ में हे वह भी भी महिम्म मिल के मिल के की मिल के मिल क

वी की खेली मार्स हिस की महिली।

 āном. 111

25. phā nō rō chām maü ān-nā; poi-ān kāw-ko jâk bāw-mī bā kau baupresence-before; sky above head and thy and (to-)call worthy not-am luk-män.' Poi po-mān khau-khām-kūlā phān-khām haü, 'aü mā $kul\bar{\alpha}$ (of-) thee (the-)son.' And (the-)father (plural) servants order-word take come gave, phä phā khīng bai-mān chām; kiñ-bā-dī; nung-tang nung-tang poi khringken very-called-good; \mathbf{robe} put-on-place robe body on-his and; and put-on-place niu chī-râp-châp-khâp-bai; poi nung-täng khüp ankhau. \mathbf{Poi} mā, jewel-bind-pure-round-place; and put-on-place shoe feet (on-)finger come, klin, $ch\bar{a}m$ hit-mün hit-khün. Chū-chāng-nai rāw kin ī-ū klen, rau do-merriment do-playing. drink, \mathbf{and} Recause this esf dīp-dī-koi; 30. luk-män tai-shi-jau, bā-ān poi $m\bar{a}n$ chām raidipdied-having-was, again alive-well-has(-become); son and losschām.' Bā-ān khau tāng-lai hit-mün hit-khündai, chāng-nai dai present-time-now ali-all do-merriment do-playingpossess, and. And they jau-o.

done-had.

Ti-nai phū-ai luk-mān nā-din shaü ü-koi. field-land Place-this (now) male-elder enter been-has. Bā-ān mān-ko pâk mā, mā-thüng phāng rün, mān-ko And back come-arrive came, near house, 35. hung hit-mün hit-khün chām. Poi-ān mān-ko rik ngin kā ngin called do-merriment do-playing dancing and. sound And he hear phū-1 khā-lik-bau thām-khām-rō, 'kā-shāng khau-mün bâk-khāmlüng 'what ' ask-word-know, (pl.) merriment male-one servant-male-young-man 0?' Bā-ān 'maü náng-män mān-ko bā-mān-jau, mā-(question)?' ' thy And he say-to-him-did, younger-brother comeū-koi; maü haü phak-1 khau jau, chū-chāng-nai po-mān lüng been-has; did, thy father give feast-one (to-)them because koi.' mān-ko khiñ (for khuñ)-di than mān dai Bā-ān mān-ko khün he him got very-well has.' And he very 40. chaü dit; mā-khau. Chū-chāng-nai mān-ko rün bāw podetbau (the-) father (in-) mind (into-) house come-enter(ed). Therefore hot; he jū.' mān-ko rün âk mā luk-pī-ai râng rik-mā, 'khau rün house outside came son-year-first-born address(ed) call-come, house live.

A STATE OF THE STATE OF

के महे। अहं महे हे हैं पहें। शेंह हहे हैं हैं। अमा में शहें भी भी हे का की महें का कहें हैं की का कहें भी जी पड़ी के हैं एं है की। जा कहें हैं है पढ़ें। से कहें हैं की। йном. 113

and

DOW

loss-possess-was,

and

got-was.'

Q

Bā-ān mān-ko lāt-khām le (for lau) po-mān phān jāk, And he say-word spoke (to-the-)father (in-) sorrow great, ' kā-shāng рī hit-boi-ū; mü mün nai kāw-ko maü phān maü kau'what year time past-time 1 (to-)thee doing-service-am; now order (of-) thee kāw-ko khām-mā-lau bāw lu-koi. To-lāk maü-ko kaubau I word-come-speak (i.e. word) disobeyed-have. Nevertheless thou 45. kāw mā-lau-kin bāw haü pe-ngā-1 ân pü-näng-nai kaubau $l\ddot{u}ng$ (to-)me not ever goat-one, gavest young in-order-that kāw-ko pinhit-mün hit-khün $doi\tilde{n}$ ${
m châm}$ kāw kün-rik-tai. kaukaukun. doing-merriment doing-playing with together my person-relation-playmate. Tü-bā khān-mā-chām i-ū luk mau mā-thung-chām pān-kū But as-soon-as this son (of-) thee come-arrive which 80n rai-dai tāng-lai -ko maü khām khâng ling kin khráng loss-possess(ed) all-all large-property small-property-and-cattle thy gold ate klen doiñ drank with phâk-1 jau-o.' maü-ko mān haü-dai Bā-ān mānbāng-shaü lüng done-had. gave-possess feast-one And thou (to-) him he harlot-young-women maü-ko kāw doiñ 'luk kū-mü-kūbā-jau, hā, 50. -ko mān kauai, say-did, 0, thou $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}$ with every-time-every-(to-) him 'son poi-ān kāw tāng-lai khâng ling khau jū-koi; bān kaukhráng great-property small-property-and-cattle them all-all (of-) me lived-hast; and day maŭ-ko dai thou possessed hit-mün hān-dai dī jau pü-näng-nai rāw-ko Mān koi. chām rau that do-merriment good Ιŧ see-get (appears) very also chū-chāng-nai ī-ū nâng maü tai-jau, hit-khün chaü koi, ũ this younger-brother die-did, (of-) thee (in-) heart because have, do-playing been dai-jau.' dīp-dī-koi; rai-dai-jau, poi-ān nai bā-ān poi

dip

again

alive-well-has-(become);

[No. 2.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AHOM.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

(Babu Golab Chundra Barua, 1899.)

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AHOM.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

(Babu Golab Chundra Barua, 1899.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Ī-ū sho-khām ñâm ū-koi. Kāw bāw pai-kā lāk phau (sic) khâng Kau phraü khráng bauThis complaint-word false not been-has. go-did (to-)steal large-property any ling-mai

small-property-and-cattle-at

mān rün. Sho-khām khau lau Kāw rai-dai kāw hū-me pān-kū. $K\alpha u$ kau(at-)his house. Complaint-word those (these) words (truth) are. which I cow-female loss-possess my luk-tām Dhonī-rām rū (for rō) pī-1 kāw khān-jau jau. kau $l\ddot{u}ng$ buy-did Dhani-ram before I year-one ago. shī-ko kāw-mai khiñ bai chām shaü-hing-jau-o phai mān kāw chau rün khün heng phraikau kaumuch watching also use-done-had though her former owner('s) house 5. kū-mü kū-bān; kāw chām dai-jau pai āw(sic)-mā (sic) hū-me kū-mū nām. kauaü every-day; I and possess-did go take-come cow-female each-time every-time Bā-bān

Said-day

Dhoni-ram, kāw-ko pai-kā tī mān run hān chām shāng-bā kāw kaukau (by-)Dhani-rām, go-did house (to-) see and cowpai-kā-jau. bān-tūk me tit chāng A-nān bai-läng pintuktetgo-go-did. sun-fall female there That on-back (i.e. after) and was. Kāw phai-kā khau shun mān nā-kān-mü hān-dū shäng kāw hū-Kau phraikau compound (of-)him before-place-time (to-)see-carefully my cowme tit chām phai-jau-shī. Chiu pin-koi mü-nai mān shaü nâng-ñüng tetphrai So happened time-this (i.e. then) his young-woman younger-sister -female there and gone-had.

ण की भारति के के हैं है।

āном. 117

Mālotī nāng-1 10. chü mā(sic) khau shun kā-jau shīp pit рī $l\ddot{u}ng$ shippetname Mālatī girl-one teneight come intocompound go-did tāng nām-tâng-1 khau mü. Tām-nai chām khām tūk-kā. Mālotī hān--büng tuk with hand. From-this (i.e. then) and evening fall-did. in Mālatī water-pot-one seejau; kāw pai-nai-shī mān kān-pā, shī-ko kāw ${f m}{f ar a}$ hān mān jau. kaukaudid; I go-unexpectedly-ing her towards, though 1 her did. not Man shaü kū-kān-tā ${
m ch\bar{a}m}$ râng-hai-kā, shāng-bā mān bā-kā kāw ū. kauyoung-woman fear-began-feel and shout-loud-did, as-if she say-did I be phī-1 koi. Khau Dhonī-rām tāng kūn kāw khât-jau. $m\bar{a}$ ${f chām}$ phrī-lüng ghost-one did. Dhanī-rām all persons outside came, and me seize-did. 15. Khau bā-kā kāw tit Ān-nān chāng mā-jau hān nâng shaü. lāttetkauThey say-did I there and come-did (to-)see younger-sister young-woman. sav. Dhoni-rām khām pūlīsh, lau-kā tü-bā nâng shaü mān ai lāp Dhani-rām tell-did word (to-the-)police, but his younger-sister young-woman shame hide chāng $m\bar{a}n$ and he bā khau kāchārī kāw pai-kā lāk māk-mo-mang mān chām Mālotī kau1 says in court go-did (to-)steal fruit-mango (of-)him Mālatī kāw hān-jau tūn nū. kau tunme see-did tree

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This case is false. I did not go to steal anything at his house. The facts are these. I missed my cow which I had bought from Dhanirām a year ago. The cow, though carefully kept by me, used to visit her former owner's house very often, and I had to go and fetch her several times. On the day referred to by Dhanirām I went to his house to see if my cow had gone there. That was after sunset. I walked through his bari as usual to see whether my cow was straying there. (It so happened) that at that time his sister Mālati, a grown-up girl of 18 years, came to the bari with a water-pot in her hand. It was then nearly dark. She saw me unexpectedly going towards her though I myself had not noticed her. She got frightened and screamed as if she thought I was a ghost. The people of the house, including Dhanirām, came and seized me, saying that I had come there to visit the girl. That was the story Dhanirām told to the police, but in the Court in order to hide the shame of his sister he gives out that I was stealing his mangoes and that Mālati saw me first on the tree.

118 TAI GROTTPA

The following Aham account of the creation of the world is taken from the sixth volume of the Journal of the Bengal Asiatic Society. The original, in the Ahom character, is given on plate VI of that volume, but is so incorrect that a satisfactory reproduction is impossible. A transliteration and translation by Major F. Jenkins is given on pp. 980 and ff. of the same volume, on which the following is based.

The extract is interesting, but possesses many points of difficulty, some of which I have failed to elucidate in a manner satisfactory to myself. The order of the words is quite abnormal,—the subject frequently coming at the end of the sentence.

[No. 3.]

5.

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AHOM.

SPECIMEN III.

AN AHOM COSMOGONY. Pin-nang jī-mü rân-ko taü phā pai mī I din. $Be ext{-}thus$ beginning-time confusedbott om heavenbe earth. Pai mī lüp-din müng shü taü. Not be island-land land (?) or below. Lai-chān kup-kup $_{ ext{tim}}$ maimüng tē-jau. Many-fold layer-layer tree fill country establish-was. Täng-kä khrung phā phrau pai-mī nāng hit chau. All-allfrost skynot-be sitany do master. Khāk-khai thün jin-kun. Division-division jungle quiet-quiet (?). Kång-to ai-muñ (muy)dai-oi-ñā tē-jau. (?) Collect vapour-frost possess-feed-forest establish-was. Khān (for khām)-to jaü lâk kau phā. pin Word-only filament spider transform become God. Nā ring bā-chū-müng tī pün tē-jau.

Thick thousand fathom-league-country place world establish-was. Tün-lün jū mü jū poi bān.

Afterwards-after remain time againremain day.

10. Phā-ko tāk-bā rō mikhrai. Godconsider-say know become Brahmā.

Bau $r\bar{o}$ phrī-daü phān mān haü pin-dai. Not know god-deva orderhimgive become-possess.

Khin(khen) klāng nāng rau phrüng. Remain middle in-the-air like-what a-honey-comb.

Pü nän täng-kā müng On-account-of that all-all country confused. Phraü pai nāng $_{
m hit}$ châng. Anyone not sitdo umbrella.

āном. 119

15. Khān (for khām)-to jaü kau lâk pin phā.

Word-only filament spider transform become God.

Kân phrā phük râng müng.

Mass rock white uphold land.

Lai lüp tī pün tē-jau.

Many island place world establish-was.

Khān-to mān poi jün pin phā.

Word-only he again pattern become God.

Ring lup mân khâm koi lüng pin mân khrai. Thousand smear Brahmā gold only one became Brahmā egg.

20. Phā pin phe nai din.

God become pervade now earth.

Klüm-klüm åk shing (sheng) ngau.

Brightness-brightness come-out ray light.

Khiñ(khen) klāng rau nắng phrüng.

Remain middle in-the-air like-what a-honey-comb.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

- 1. Thus was it in the beginning time, chaos below (and) in heaven. Eurth was not.
- 2. There was not island-land or earth below.
- 3. Trees filled the earth in manifold layers.
- 4. All was frozen. Over the heavens no lord sat.
- 5. In each division (i.e. everywhere), the jungle was still and quiet.
- 6. The forests fed upon the (?) collected fogs and frosts.
- 7. God, by his word alone, became transformed (and created the universe) like the thread of a spider (i.e. as a spider spins his web).
 - 8. In the world was a country a thousand fathoms and leagues thick.
 - 9. Thereafter He remained (at rest) for a time, and again remained at rest for days.
 - 10. God knew, and considered, and said, 'Let Brahmā be created.'
- 11. I know not (what) god or what deity (gave) the order, (but) He gave him (to us, and we) received him.
 - 12. (Brahmā) remained unsupported in the air like a honeycomb.
 - 13. Therefore all the world was chaos.
 - 14. No umbrella-bearing (king) was seated (over the earth).
- 15. God, by his word only, became transformed (and created the universe) as a spider spins his web.
 - 16. A mass of white rock (i.e., Mount Mēru) sustains the earth.
 - 17. There are in the world many islands.
- 18. Again, by his word only, God became a pattern (upon which he had determined).
- 19. Only one Brahmā, (who was like) a golden egg, became a thousand gilded Brahmās.
 - 29. He became God, and now pervades the earth.
 - 21. The rays of light that proceed from him are glorious.
 - 22. He remained unsupported in the air like a honeycomb.

¹ Tē-jau, literally, was established, is used throughout this specimen to indicate past time, as if it was jau alone.

Vocabulary.

The following Vocabulary contains all the Ahom words which I have been able to collect. It includes every word in the specimens and list of words, and also those in Hodgson's essay on the aborigines of the North-East Frontier. There are also some others.

The roman numerals (I, II, and III) refer to the numbers of the specimens. The arabic numbers following them refer to the lines of each specimen. Arabic numerals not preceded by a roman one refer to the numbers in the list of words. Vocables depending solely on the authority of Hodgson are marked with the letter H. 'Sh.' means 'Shān'; 'Kh.'='Khāmtī.'

- \bar{q} , wide; \bar{q} -láng, wide-power, God, 60.
- \bar{a} , in \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}n$, that, q. v.
- ai, suffix of vocative; po-ai, O father, I, 2, 18, 24; luk-ai, O son, I, 50. Always written as if it was $h\bar{q}$.
- ai (Sh. the same), vapour, fog, III, 6.
- ai, first-born; $ph\bar{u}$ -ai, male first-born, I, 33; luk- $p\bar{\imath}$ -ai, child-year-first-born, eldest son, I, 41.
- ai (Sh. the same), shame, disgrace, II, 16.
- $\vec{a}k$ (Sh. the same), to go or come out, appear; rise, arise, I, 10; III, 21; outside; $\vec{a}k$ $m\vec{q}$, to come outside; II, 14; $r\ddot{u}n$ $\vec{a}k$ $m\vec{q}$, came out of the house, I, 41.
- án (Sh. the same), a diminutive ending; tü-án, a boy, 129; young, án pe-ngā, a young goat, a kid, I, 45.
- án (Sh. án, to precede), first; hān-jau-án, saw (me) first, II, 18.
- $\bar{a}n$, before, in front (cf. $\tilde{a}n$); $\bar{a}n$ kau-mai, before me, 238; maii $\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{a}$, before thee ($n\bar{a}$ also means before), I, 19, 25; $b\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}n$ (why-front), and, I, 30, 31, 34, 37, 39, 42, 49; poi- $\bar{a}n$, and, see poi, I, 25, 35, 51, 54.
- $\bar{a}n$, a saddle, 226, 227.
- \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}n$ (Sh. $\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{a}n$, Kh. \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}n$), that, II, 7, 15 ($\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{a}n$); 230, 232, 233, 240. $\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{a}n$, see \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}n$.
- aii (Sh. āw), to take, 235; aii-dai, to take-possess, to fetch, I, 2; collect, I, 5; haii-aii-dai, to fetch and give, I, 2; aii-kin, to take and eat (or drink), I, 6; aii-ráp-dai, to take-bind-have, to make (me thy servant), I, 20; aii-mā, to take and come, to bring, I, 26; II, 5; aii mī, to take a female, to marry, 225; khān-shii aii, to buy, 240; sometimes spelt āw, as in Shān, e.g., II, 5.
- au-chau (Sh. āw), an uncle, the younger brother of a father.
- $b\bar{a}$, why?, 94; $b\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}n$ (why in front), and, I, 30, 31, 34, 37, 39, 42, 49, 54; $sh\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$ (Kh. shang- $w\bar{a}$), if, I, 13; II, 6, 13; $t\ddot{u}$ - $b\bar{a}$ (Kh. to- $w\bar{a}$), but, I, 22; II, 16; 96 (with $t\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}$, pr. $t\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, as an alternative spelling).
- $b\bar{a}$ (Sh. $w\bar{a}$), a fathom, four cubits, III, 8.
- bā (Kh. and Sh. wā), to say; bā, he said, I, 15, 24 (bā); he says, II, 17; jāk-bā, worthy to be called, I, 20; jāk bāw (baw)-mī bā, am not worthy to be called, I, 25; kiñ (ken)-bā-dī, very-called-good, that which is called very good, the best, I, 27; bā-mān-jau, said to him, I, 37; bā-jau, said, I, 50; bā-bān, said day, on the day referred to, II, 5; khau bā-kā, they said, II, 15.

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bai (Kh. and Sh. wai), to place; bai-shī, put (imperative), 227; bai chám doiñ, place (me) together with (thy servants), I, 21; hup-bai, to lay by, store, I, 16; chī-rāp-chāp-khāp-bai, jewel-bind-pure-round-place, a finger-ring, I, 28; khāt-bai-shī, bind (imperat.), 236; bai, watching, taking care of, II, 4; bai, on; khring bai mān, on his body,-I, 27; bai-lāng, on-back, after, II, 7.

bak (Sh. wak or mak, to announce), to mean, I, 36; to speak, tell (H.).

bān (Kh., Sh. and Siamese wān), a day, I, 5: III, 9; the sun, 62; kū-mü-kū-bān, every time every day, always, I, 51; frequently, II, 8; bā-bān, the said day, on the day referred to, II, 5; bān-tuk, sun fall, sunset, II, 7.

bān (Kh. mān, Sh. mān, wān, Siamese bān), a village; haü müng-bān, that country-village, in that land, I, 9; bān-chām, of (belonging to) the village, 241.

bāng, a harlot, I, 49; kun-mī-bāng, person-female-harlot, I, 7.

bau (Sh. wau or mau), a young unmarried man; khā-lik-bau, servant male young-man, a servant, I, 36.

baü (Kh. and Sh. maü), a leaf (H.).

bāw (bau), negative particle, I, 40, 44, 45; II, 1; III, 11; kā-lāng bau bān nai nām nā, after not day now many very, after a few days, I, 4; phraū-bau, anyone-not, no one, I, 14; the negative verb substantive is bau-mī, am-not, I, 19, 25; cf. bū-khriu.

blak (Kh. and Sh. mak), a flower (H.).

boi, to serve; hit-boi-ū, (I) do-serve-am, I am serving, I, 43.

 $b\bar{u}$, not (H.).

bū-khriu, no, 99; khriu means 'yes'.

chā (Siamese chuā; the Shān is hai), bad, 129, 131; nik-chā, alas, 100.

chām, and, 95; usually as a copula between phrases; in such cases it most often precedes the second member, as in I, 7, 11, 21 bis, 25, 29; II, 13, 14, 17; 236; sometimes used elsewhere in the second member, as if it were an enclitic, as in, I, 27 (end of sentence), 35 (suffixed to second of two words); II, 3, (second word), 5 (ditto), 6 (end of clause), 9 (penultimate word), 11 (second word), 15 (written chāng, middle of clause, preceding verb); may be best translated 'also' in I, 52 (penultimate); II, 7 (chāng, penultimate), 16, (chāng, middle of sentence). chām chām, both and, the word being placed at the end of each clause, I, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23; in I, 30, we have mān chām rai-dai, chāng-nai dai chām, he on the one hand was lost, but on the other hand was found. As seen in some of the above examples, the word is occasionally written chāng.

chām, said to mean 'swift' in the compound khān-mā-chām, quickly come swift, i.e., as soon as, I, 47. The same word is repeated in the same sentence after the verb, apparently pleonastically; khān-mā-chām ī-ū luk maŭ mā-thūng-chām, as soon as this thy son arrived; in Kh. mā chām means 'soon'; possibly the second chām is the same as the Sh. chāng, the sign of the conjunctive participle (having arrived). Compare, however, chāng, the particle of present time.

chām, in kī-chām, how many?, 223. Cf. chān.

chām, in bān-chām, of or belonging to a village (bān), 241.

châm (Sh. chām, to be near), vicinity, company; châm-doiñ, joined with, living with, living with I, 11, 21; doiñ châm, together with, I, 46, preceding the noun it governs.

chān (Sh. the same), a layer, a fold; lai-chān, manifold, III, 3. Evidently the same as $ch\bar{a}m$ in $k\bar{\imath}$ -chām above. In the third specimen final m is regularly written n. Cf. $kh\bar{a}n$.

chāng, the same as chām, and, q.v.

chāng (Kh. and Sh. the same), an elephant (H.).

chāng (Sh. the same), a verbal particle denoting present time; chāng-nai, now, I,

chāng (Kh. $k\bar{a}$ -chām), a conditional particle, used to denote the apodosis of a conditional sentence, with shāng-bā, if, I, 13; chū-chāng-nai, because, therefore, see $ch\bar{u}$.

châng (Kh. and Sh. the same), an umbrella: hit chăng, to do umbrella, to be a king.

cháp, said to mean 'pure' in chī-ráp-cháp-kháp-bai, a finger-ring, I, 28, see chī.

The Kh. and Sh., however, for a finger-ring is lāk-chāp, which is borrowed direct from Burmese.

chau (Sh. chāw), a master, owner, II, 4; III, 4.

chau, in au-chau, an uncle, 225, see au.

chaü (Kh. and Sh. chaü, Siamese chai), mind, heart, I, 13, 40; un(uy)-chaü plāng, gladness mind clear, i.e., he would fain, I, 13; hit-mün hit-khün ū chaü koi, have (ū-koi) rejoiced in heart (chaü), I, 53.

chē, cold (H.). (Hodgson writes this khye.)

cheng, handsome (H.). (Hodgson writes this khyeng.)

chī, a jewel, precious stone; $ch\bar{\imath}-r\tilde{a}p$ -cháp-kh $\tilde{a}p$ -bai (Kh. and Sh. $l\bar{a}k$ -cháp), jewel bind pure round place, a finger-ring, I, 28.

chit (pronounced chet) (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), numeral, seven.

chü (Kh. the same), a name; II, 10; 220.

 $ch\bar{u}$, a measure of length, a $y\bar{o}jana$ or league, III, 8.

chū-chāng-nai, because, I, 29, 38, 53; therefore, I, 40; the component parts are said to be chū, a long time; chāng, a scale; nai, now. There is a word chāng used as a conditional particle.

chum (borrowed word), a kiss, I, 24.

chut, little (H.).

 $d\tilde{a}$, to strike (H.).

dai (Kh. nai, Sh. lai), to get, obtain, I, 31, 39, 54; to possess, I, 1, 2, 16, 51; TII, 6, 11; to be compelled, obliged, to have to do a thing; dai-jau-pai, was obliged to go, II, 5; very common as the second member of a compound verb, e.g., aü-dai, to fetch, I, 2; to collect, I, 5; aü-rāp-dai, to take bind have to make (a person a servant), I, 20; haü-dai, to give out and out, I, 14, 49; rai-dai, actively, to lose, I, 7, 48; II, 2; passively, to be lost, I, 30, 54; this compound also means 'to die'; hān-dai, to see get, to seem, appear, I, 52; in the last example it forms a potential compound, and is the regular auxiliary for that purpose.

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- dām (Kh. nām, Siamese dām), black (H.).
- dang (Kh. hū nang), the nose, 34.
- dau (Kh. nau, Sh. lau, Siamese dau), a star, 64.
- $da\ddot{u}$ (? a corruption of $d\bar{e}va$), a god, III, 11.
- ding (pronounced deng) (Kh. the same), red (H.).
- dī (Kh. nī, Sh. lī, Siamese dī), good, I, 52; 132; kūn dī phū lüng, person good male one, a good man, 119—127; kūn dī mī lüng, a good woman, 128, 130; dip-dī, alive and well, I, 15, 30, 54; khüñ (khün) dī luk, better than, 133; khüñ dī nām, khüñ dī nām nām, or khün dī tāng nām, best, 134; khüñ = more; luk = from; nām = many; tāng = all; kiň (ken) bā dī, very called good, best, I, 27; khüñ dī, very well, in very good health, I, 39.
- din (Sh. lin, Siamese dīn), the earth, ground, III, 1, 20; nā-din, a field, I, 33; lüp-din, an island, III, 2.
- dip (Kh. nip, Sh. lip), alive, I, 15, 30, 54.
- dit (det) (Kh. lüt), hot, I, 40; pressure; det kläng táng, pressure within belly, hunger, I, 17.
- doi (Kh. noi, Sh. loi), a hill, a mountain, 229.
- doiñ (Sh. luñ), with, together with; doiñ bāng shaü, with harlots, I, 48; kau doiñ with me, I, 50; bāng doiñ-kān, began to be with harlots, I, 7; chám-doiñ kun-phū-lüng, joined with a man, living with a man, I, 11; khā-lik bai chám-doiñ, place amongst servants, I, 21; doiñ châm kau kun-rik-tai, with my friends, I, 46.
- $d\bar{u}$ (Sh. $l\bar{u}$), to look behold; $h\bar{a}n$ - $d\bar{u}$, to look carefully, thoroughly, II, 8; both words mean 'to see' or 'look'.
- dün (Kh. nün or lün, Sh. lün, Siamese düen), the moon, 63.
- $h\bar{a}$ (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), five, 5; $h\bar{a}$ ship, fifty, 12.
- $h\bar{a}$, see ai.
- hai (Kh. and Sh. the same), to weep; ráng-hai (Sh. háng-hai), to cry out, scream, II, 13.
- hān (Kh. the same, Siamese hen), to see; Past, hān-jau, saw, I, 23; II, 11, 18; kau mā hān mān jau, I did not see her, II, 12; pai-ka hān, I went to see, II, 6; mā-jau hān, I came to see, II, 15; hān-dai, to appear, see dai; hān-dū, to look carefully, see dū.
- haü, that (adjective); haü müng-bān, in that country, I, 9; haü müng-mai, of that country, I, 11; haü kun-phū, that man, I, 11.
- haü (Kh. and Northern Sh. haü, Southern Sh., pān), to give; Imperative, haü, I, 2; 84, 234; Past, haü, he gave, I, 12, 26, 45; III, 11; haü . . . jau, gave, I, 38; Plup haü-dai . . . jau-o, had given out and out, I, 49; phraü-bau jāng-haū-dai, no one gave, I, 14; phān-kham haü, to give an order, I, 12, 26. Commonly used as a causal prefix, (so also in Kh., cf. Sh. h-). Thus, haü-oi-kin-klen, cause to eat and drink continually, pasture, I, 12; so I, 14, mü haü-kin-klen, fed the swine.
- hing (heng) in shaü-heng, to use, to exert force. The members of the compound are said to have no meaning separately, II, 4; see shaü-hing.

- hit [Kh. and Sh. hit (het). In Kh. usually written hich], to do, III, 4; hit-mün hit-khün, to do merriment, to do playing, to rejoice, I, 29 (1st pl. imperat.), 31 (plup. with jau-o), 35 (verbal noun), 46 (potential with pin), 52 (perf. with \bar{u} . . . koi): hit-boi- \bar{u} (I) am doing service I, 43; hit cháng, to do umbrella, to bear an umbrella be a king III, 14.
- $h\bar{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. $ng\bar{o}$, Sh. also $w\bar{o}$, Siamese $ng\ddot{u}\bar{a}$), an animal of the ox species; $h\bar{u}$ - $th\ddot{u}k$, a bull, 142; $h\bar{u}$ -me, a cow, 143. Cf. II, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8. It will be seen
 from II, 3 and from 69 that the suffix of gender is sometimes omitted.

hung (? Kh. and Sh. shing), a noise, sound, I, 35.

hüng, thin, not fat (H.).

- hup (Sh. the same), to gather together, to collect; hup-bai, to collect and place, to store up, save up, lay by, I, 16.
- ip (Kh. and Sh. $\ddot{u}p$), to be famished; $t\ddot{a}k$ -ip- $t\ddot{a}k$, become famine misery, famine, I, 9.
- $\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{u} , this (adjective). Always precedes the word which it qualifies. 1, 29, 47, 53; II, 1; 221, 226, 227, 234. Applies to both animate and inanimate objects. The word is explained as $\bar{\imath}$, one; \bar{u} , is!
- $j\bar{a}k$, translated 'great' in I, 42. The phrase is $ph\bar{a}n$ $j\bar{a}k$, in great sorrow: possibly really an intensive doublet, and $j\bar{a}k$, means 'poor', 'unhappy'. Cf. Sh. $y\bar{a}k$.

jak, to be fit, worthy, I, 20, 25.

ján (Sh. yán), to ask, demand, beg for; ján-shū, to ask wish, (I) ask that, I, 2.

 $j\bar{a}ng$ (Kh. and Sh. $y\bar{a}ng$), to be, exist; $j\bar{a}ng$ -haü-dai, be give possess, (no one) gave, I, 14; more usually $\hat{n}\bar{a}ng$, q.v.

jau (Kh. and Sh. yau), to be completed, finished; hence, suffix of the past tense, see grammar. In Kh. and Sh., yau is the suffix of the perfect, not of the past.

jau, very, in $d\bar{\imath}$ jau, very good, 1, 52. In Sh. yau is an assertive suffix.

jau (Sh. yau), to be distant, far; müng jau, a distant country, I, 6; jau, far, 89.

jaü (Kh. and Sh. the same), a fibre, filament; jaü-kau, a spider's thread, III, 7, 15.

 $j\bar{\imath}$, first, beginning; $j\bar{\imath}$ - $m\ddot{\imath}$, beginning-time, III, 1.

jin (Sh. the same), to be quiet, still; jin-kun, still still(?), III, 5.

 $j\bar{u}$ (Sh. $y\bar{u}$ cf. \bar{u}), to stay, abide, dwell, III, 9; imperat. $j\bar{u}$, I, 41; pres. $j\bar{u}$, 233; perf. $j\bar{u}$ -koi, I, 51.

jün, a pattern, III, 18.

- kā (Kh. and Northern Sh. kā, Southern Sh. kwā), to go, 77; past, kā-jau, II, 10; written kā in I, 18. Often compounded as a doublet with pai, to go; thus, pai-kā-nā, will go along, I, 18; pai-kā-mā. . . . jau, went along, I, 21; pai-kā-jau, went along, II, 7; like mā, when appended to another verb, it usually gives the meaning of progression.
- $k\bar{a}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), a crow (H.).
- $k\bar{a}$, suffix of past tense. Written $k\bar{a}$ in I, 11. The same suffix is used in Khāmtī.
- $k\bar{a}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same) (sometimes written $k\bar{a}$), prep., at; $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, at back, behind, after, I, 4 (written $k\bar{a}$); 91; $k\bar{a}$ nai, at this, now, I, 17; $k\bar{a}$ - $ta\ddot{u}$, at below, under, 230.

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kā (Kh. and Sh. the same), to be sufficient, as much as,—only used in composition; kā-shāng, the same as shāng, what?, I, 36, 43 (written kā); 93, 220.
The compound is explained as kā, measure, and shāng, know. As adjective, all (so Sh.): tāng-kā, all all, III, 4, written tāng-kā in III, 13.

 $k\bar{a}$, often written for $k\bar{a}$, q.v.

 $k\bar{a}$ (Kh. and Sh. $k\bar{a}$), to dance, I, 35.

kāchārī (borrowed word), a magistrate's court, cutcherry, II, 17.

kai (Kh. and Sh., the same, Siamese khai), a fowl, 72.

kai, in $p\bar{\imath}$ -kai, an elder brother, I, 3; $p\bar{\imath}$, by itself, means the same. Cf. ai in $ph\bar{u}$ -ai.

kān (Southern Sh. kā, Northern Sh. kān), a place; hence, kān-pā, place side, i.e., towards; mān kān-pā, towards her, II, 12; nā-kān-mü, before place time, hence, as usual, II, 8.

 $k\bar{a}n$ (Kh. the same), a suffix denoting mutuality, as in $p\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}n$, mutually accompanied, copulated, I, 7; cf. $r\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}n$, to consult.

kān, to begin; pān-kān . . . jau, began to divide, I, 3; doin-kān, began to be with, I, 7; rāk-kān, began to love, felt compassion, I, 23; chum-kān-jan, began to kiss, I, 24; kū-kān-tā, fear began feel, became frightened, II, 13; khā-kān-phā-kān, to begin to cut.

kán (Sh. the same), a hard mass, a block; kán phrā, a mass of rock, III, 16.

káng, in káng·to, to bring (a thing) into, or keep it in subjection; (?) to collect (Cf. Sh. káng), III, 6.

kāt (Kh. and Sh. the same), a market, bazaar; kāt-kim (kem), a shopkeeper, 241.

kát (Sh. the same), to embrace; Past, kát, with jau supplied from the following clause, embraced, I, 23.

kau, former, previous, II, 4.

kau (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), numeral, nine, 9.

kau, often written kāw (Kh. and Sh., the same, Siamese kū), pronoun, 'I,' 14—16. Nominative, kau-ko, I, 17 (bis), 19 (bis), 24, 25, 43, 44, 46; II, 6; 205; Acc., kau, I, 20; II, 18; Dative, kau, I, 45; general oblique form, kau-mai, II, 4 (by me watching was done); ān kau-mai, before me, 238; Genitive, following governing noun, po kau, my father, I, 18, 233; preceding governing noun, I, 15, 46, 51; II, 2, 6, 8; 225. The plural is rau, we, q. v.

kau (Kh. and Sh. küng-kau), a spider, III, 7, 15.

kē, crooked (H.).

ken, see kiñ.

khā (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), a slave, 57; with lik or ñüng the word usually means a paid servant; khā-lik, a male servant, I, 15, 21, 36; khā-nüng, a female servant, I, 16; lik-khā (Kh. lāk-khā), a boy, 54, 239.

 $kh\bar{a}$, the hand (H.).

khā, to cut; doublet, khā-phān, cut cut, to cut; with kān, to begin, we have khā-kān-phān-kān, to begin to cut.

khāk-khai, division-division, in every division, everywhere III, 5.

khām (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese tháng-khām), evening, twilight, II, 11.

khām (Kh. and Sh. the same), gold, I, 48; III, 19; 45.

khām, in khām-kulā (the members of the compound have no meaning), a servant; plural, khau khām-kulā, I, 26.

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khām (Kh. and Northern Sh., khām, Southern Sh. kwām), (written khān in III, 7, 15, 18), word, speech, language, I, 36; lāt khām, said a word, said, I, 2, 18, 42; II, 16; phān-khām, order-word, an order, I, 12, 26; thām-khām-rō, ask word know, enquired, I, 36; sho-khām, complaint word, complaint, II, 1; khām-mā-lau, word come speak, a pleonasm for khām, word, I, 44.

 $kh\bar{a}n$, the same as $kh\bar{a}m$, a word. $kh\bar{a}n$ -to is translated 'by word only', III, 7, 15, 18.

khān (Kh. and Sh. the same), price, 232; khān-shü . . . aü, price buy . . . take, (you) bought (that), 240.

 $kh\bar{a}n$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), quick; $kh\bar{a}n$ $m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}m$, quick come swift, hence as soon as, I, 47. In Kh. $m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}m$ means 'soon'.

khán (Sh. the same), a cudgel, staff, stick; tāng-khán, with a cudgel; po tāng, khán, to beat with a cudgel, to beat severely, 228.

khāng-nā (Kh. the same, Siamese khāng-nāk), before, in presence of, 90.

kháp (Sh. the same), a circle, ring; round, around, in chi-ráp-cháp-kháp-bai, jewel bind pure round place, a finger-ring, I, 28.

khất (Sh. the same), to tie a knot; khát-bai-shī, bind (Imperat.), 236; khát-jau, seized, II, 14.

khau or mān-khau (so Kh. and Sh., Siamese khau), the plural of the third personal pronoun; Nom. khau, I, 31; II, 14, 15; mān-khau, 161, etc.; Acc. khau, I, 51; to them, khau, I, 38; as a demonstrative pronoun, khau, those (for 'these'), II, 2; as an adjective, khau trā, those rupees, 235; regularly used as a prefix to indicate the plural, I, 26, 36; 106, etc.; 140, etc.; 229.

khau (Kh. and Sh. the same), to enter; Perf. khau-ū-koi, has entered, I, 6; mā-khau, come and enter, entered, I, 40; Imperat. khau, enter, I, 41. Used as a post- or pre-position, in, on, into; nā-kip khau, into a field, I, 12; tin khau, on feet, I, 28; khau shun, into the compound, II, 8, 10; khau mü, in hand, I, 11; khau kāchārī, in the cutcherry, II, 17; khau ā-nān rün, in that house, 230. Cf. shaü.

khau (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), rice; Acc. khau, I, 16; kip khau, husk of rice, I, 14.

khan (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), a horn (II.).

khiñ, sec khüñ.

khiñ (pronounced khen), to remain, III, 12, 22.

khiu, see khriu.

kho (Kh. and Sh. $kh\bar{o}$), the neck, I, 23 (accusative).

khrai (Kh. khai), a buffalo (H.).

khrai (Kh. and Sh. khai), an egg, III, 19; hence, Brahmā, III, 10.

khráng (Kh. and Sh. kháng), property, goods. In contradistinction to ling, khráng means 'large property', and ling 'small things and domestic animals'; hence khráng-ling (Sh. kháng-ling) means 'property generally', 'goods and chattels', J, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 48, 51; II, 1; khráng shü, your property, yours, 25; khráng mai, his property, his, 28.

khring (Sh. khing), the body; khring bai mān, on his body, I, 27.

khriu or khiu (Kh. and Sh. khiu), a tooth, 37.

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khriu, yes, 98; bū khriu, no, 99.

 $khr\bar{o}$ (Kh. and Sh. $kh\bar{o}$), to laugh (H.).

khrūm (cf. Sh. khum, a hole in the ground), in luk nām-khrūm (abl.), from the well, 237.

khrum (Kh. and Sh. khum), bitter.

khrung (Kh. and Sh. khüng), to divide or distribute equally, in phā-khrung-klāng (Kh. phā-khüng-kāng), divide divide-equally middle, a half, 232.

khrung (compare Sh. kāng, to be benumbed from cold), frost, III, 4. The Ahom text has clearly khung (i.e., khrung), but Major Jenkins transliterates krang.

khün (Sh. khün, to ascend), to arise; $t\bar{\imath}$. . . khün, will arise, I, 17; khün (with jau supplied from the following sentence, connected by $ch\bar{a}m$), arose, I, 21; to stand up, 82.

khün, in hit-mün hit-khün, which is an intensive doublet of hit-mün, the whole meaning 'doing-merriment doing-playing', i.e., 'rejoicing'; 1st pers. pl. imperat., I, 29; Plup. with jau-o, I, 31; Genitive, governed by hung, sound, I, 35; Potential, with pin, I, 46; Perf., with ū-koi, I, 52.

khun (also written khin) (pronounced khun) (Kh. and Sh. the same), to be better; hence, very well, I, 39 (khin); much, II, 4 (khin). Used to form the comparative degree, thus, khun dī, better. The thing with which the comparison is made is put in the ablative by prefixing luk. The superlative is formed with the ablative of nām-nām, many many, or of tāng-nām, all many; thus, khun dī luk, better than; khun dī luk nām-nām or khun dī luk tāng-nām, better than very many, better than all, best; see 133—137 khūn shung luk mān nāng-nūng, taller than his sister, 231.

khüp (Kh. and Sh. khip-tin), a shoe (acc.), I, 28.

kī (Kh. the same), how much? how many? kī thau, how old? 221; kī shai, how far?, 222; kī chām, how many?, 223.

kim (pronounced kem), in $k\bar{a}t$ -kim, a shopkeeper, 241; $k\bar{a}t$ is a 'market'. I have failed to trace the meaning of kim.

kīn [Kh. and Sh. the same; but in these languages kin means both 'to eat' and 'to drink'. In Āhom kin is 'to eat', and klin (pronounced klen or klün) is 'to drink'], to eat, 78; kin, (they) eat, I, 16; (let us) eat, I, 29; ate, I, 48; kin-jau-o, had eaten, I, 9; aü-kin, took and ate, hence, drank, I, 6 (aŭ-kin is said to be the same as klin); haŭ-kin-klin, caused to eat and drink, I, 14; haŭ-oi-kin-klin, cause to continue to eat and drink, pasture (imperat.), I, 13; kun-nā-kin, (?) person field eat, a cultivator, 58.

kin, in $m\bar{q}$ -lau-kin, ever, at any time, I, 45. The separate members of the compound are said to have no meaning.

kiñ (pronounced ken) (Sh. kiñ), intensive particle; kiñ-bā-dī, very called good, called very good, the best, I, 27.

kip (Sh. the same), husk or chaff; kip khau, chaff of rice, I, 14.

kip, a plot, in $n\bar{a}$ -kip, a field-plot, I, 12.

klai (Kh. kaŭ, Siamese klai), near, not far, nearly, almost, 87.

klám (Siamese the same), round (H.).

klāng (Kh. and Sh. kāng), middle, between, III, 12, 22; klāng-sháng, between the two (brothers), I, 3, 4; klāng táng, in the belly, I, 17; phā-khrung-klāng, a half, 232, see khrung.

klen, see klin.

klin (pronounced klen or klün) (Kh. and Sh. kin), to drink, as opposed to kin, to eat; kin-klin, to eat and drink; for examples, see kin.

klün, see klin.

klüm, brightness, III, 21.

ko, suffix of the nominative case, as in kau-ko, I, in I, 17 (bis), 19 (bis), 24, 25, 43, 44, 46; II, 6; 205; rau-ko, we, I, 52; maü-ko, thou, I, 20, 44, 49, 50, 51; mān-ko, he, I, 6, 8, 10 (bis), 13, 15, 21, 22, 34 (bis), 35, 37, 39 (bis), 40, 42, 50; po-mān-ko, the father, I, 41; luk-mān-ko, the son, I, 24; luk-ko, the son, I, 48; rān-ko, chaos, III, 1. The suffix is frequently omitted. It is used before both transitive and intransitive verbs. Kh. has no such suffix. Sh. has nai, chām, and chüng. In Sh. ko means 'a person'.

ko (Kh. ko), and, also, even, 95. Used with shī to mean 'although'; e.g., II, 4, 12. In Kh. it is similarly used with the participle in shī.

ko (Kh. and Sh. the same), a friend.

koi (Sh. the same), only, III, 19.

koi (Sh. koi, to come to an end, be used up), the suffix of the perfect or past tense, equivalent to the Kh. suffix kā-yau, and the Sh. suffix yau-yau or prefix lai; dip-dī-koi, has become alive and well, I, 30, 54; ū-koi, has been, was, I, 33; II, 1, 14; 223; dai khūñ-dī koi, has got him in good health (dai-koi, has got), I, 39; bau lu-koi, have not disobeyed, I, 44; jū-koi, hast lived, I, 51; dai . . . koi, hast possessed, I, 52; pin-koi, it happened, II, 9; po . . . koi, (I) have beaten, 228. The force is emphasised by adding ū, to be, as in khau-ū-koi, has entered, I, 6; mā-ū-koi, has come, I, 38; hitmün hit-khūn ū . . . koi, have been rejoicing, I, 53; a past subjunctive is formed by adding koi to the future prefix tī, and making the whole a suffix, as in kau ū-tī-koi, I should be, 174.

krang, see khrung.

kū (Kh. and Sh. the same), a distributive particle meaning 'each', 'every', as in kū-mü kū-bān, every time every day, always (I, 50), often (II, 5); kū-mü nām, each time very, over and over again, II, 5.

 $k\bar{u}$, in $p\bar{a}n-k\bar{u}$, which, I, 47; II, 2. The meaning of $k\bar{u}$ in this compound is lost. $K\bar{u}$ means 'a sofa', 'a fair', 'a long-necked earthen pot', 'to fear', 'to stare', 'fat'.

 $k\bar{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. $k\bar{o}$), to fear; $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{a}n$ - $t\bar{a}$, began to feel fear, II, 13.

kulā, in khām-kulā, see khām.

kūn (pronounced, and often written, kun) (Kh. and Sh. the same), a person, a human being; kūn-phū-lüng, person-male one, a man, I, 1, 11; 51; kūn-mī, person-female, a woman, I, 7; 52; kūn-phring, person crowd, a number of people, persons, I, 16; kūn-rik-tai, person relation playmate, a friend, I, 46; tāng-kūn, all persons, everyone, II, 14; kūn-nā-kin, (?) person field eat, a cultivator, 58; kūn dī phū lüng, person good male one, a good man, 119—127; kūn dī mī lüng, a good woman, 128, 130; often used as a generic prefix or postfix with numerals in counting human beings, as above; so also luk-mān shāng-kūn, son two persons, two sons, I, 1.

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kun, ? still, quiet, in jin-kun (III, 5).

kup, a layer, III, 3.

lai (Kh. and Sh. the same), all; many, III, 17; used as a doublet of tang in tang-lai, all, I, 4, 31, 48, 51; lai-chān, manifold, III, 3.

 $l\bar{a}k$, in to- $l\bar{a}k$, nevertheless.

lāk (Sh. the same), to steal; kau bau pai-kā lāk, I did not go to steal, II, 1; so, II, 17.

lák, to transform, III, 7, 15.

lā-ling (Kh. and Sh. ling), a monkey (H.).

lāng (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese hlāng), the back, 43; nō lāng mān, on his back, 227; kā-lāng, behind, 91; kā-lāng bau bān nai nām-nā, after not many days, I, 4; bai-lāng bān-tuk, on back, i.e., after sunset, II, 7; lāng maü, after you, 239; poi lun-lāng, again after-back, and, thereupon, then, I, 10.

lāng (Kh. and Sh. the same), the jack-fruit tree. See māk.

láng, power, in ā-láng, wide power, God, 60.

 $l\bar{a}p$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), to hide, conceal; Infinitive of purpose, $l\bar{a}p$, to hide, II, 16.

lāt (Kh. and Sh. the same), to say; lāt khām, said word, said, I, 2; lāt khām, say word, statement, II, 15; lāt-khām-lau, say word speak, see lau, I, 18, 42.

lát (Kh. and Sh. the same), short (H.).

lau (Sh. the same), a statement, II, 2; to address a person, say (usually to a superior); Past, khām lau-kā, said words (to the police), II, 16; lāt-khām-lau (governed by tī in the preceding clause), will say word speak, will say, I, 18; lāt-khām-lau (written le), said, I, 42; khām-mā-lau, word come say, a mere pleonasm for khām, word, I, 44.

lau (Sh. the same), spirituous liquor, I, 6.

lau, in $m\bar{a}$ -lau-kin, ever, at any time. The separate members of the compound are said to have no meaning.

le, in I, 42, incorrect for lau.

lik (Kh., Sh. and Siamese $l\bar{e}k$), iron, 44.

lik, in khā-lik, a male paid servant, I, 16, 21, 36. Khā-ñüng is 'a female paid servant', khā meaning 'slave'. In Sh. a servant or slave is khā, of which khāl-la is a synonym; la in Sh. also means 'a servant', and la-lük, the subjects of a prince. Nüng is certainly a female suffix, and hence lik is probably a male one. Cf. Kh. lāk-khā, child.

lik, to tend, take care of; Imperat., lik, I, 12; $p\bar{a}$ -lik, graze-tend, a shepherd, 59. lik- $kh\bar{a}$ (Kh. $l\bar{a}k$ - $kh\bar{a}$), a child, 54, 239.

lim (pronounced lem) (Kh. and Sh. the same) an arrow (H.).

lin (pronounced len) (Kh. the same), to run, 85.

lin (so Kh., Sh. and Siamese), the tongue, 41.

ling (pronounced leng) (Kh. and Sh. the same), light, not dark (H.).

ling, cattle; Acc. pl., khau ling, 229; in compound with khráng, ling means cattle and small property, and the whole compound khráng-ling means property (Sh. kháng-ling). See khráng.

lip (Sh. the same; Kh. nip), raw, unripe (H.).

- lu (Sh. the same), to be ruined, $t\bar{a}k$ -lu, become diminished, I, 8; $t\bar{a}k$ -lu $t\bar{a}k$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, become diminished become ruined, hence, spent, I, 8; kau-ko bau lu-koi, I have not disobeyed, I, 44.
- luk (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese dek), a child, son, I, 5; 228; Voc. luk ai, I, 50; Nom. luk-ko, I, 47; luk-mān, a son, I, 1, 20, 26, 30, 33; 55, 223, 225; Nom. luk-mān-ko, I, 24; luk-ñüng, a daughter, 56, 110, etc.; luk-pī-ai, son year first-born, eldest son, I, 41; 'son' is luk-mān; 'his son' is usually (228) mān luk, not luk mān, as we should expect.
- luk, preposition of the ablative, 104, 109, 113, 118, 122, 127, 237, 240, 241; used in ablative of comparison (see khiiî), 133, 136; luk-tām, the same, II, 3; 222, 235.

lum (pronounced lom) (Kh. and Sh. the same), air, wind (H.).

lun or lün (Northern Sh. lun, Southern Sh. lün), what comes last, after; lun-lāng, after behind, afterwards, I, 10. Tün-lün in III, 9, see tün.

lung (pronounced long) (Kh. and Sh. the same) great, large.

lüng (so in Kh. and Sh., Siamese nüng), numeral, one, I, 45; III, 19; 1; used as the indefinite article, a, a certain (following the noun qualified), I, 1, 11, 36, 38, 49; II, 3, 10, 11, 14; 101, etc., 138, etc., 230.

lup (Sh. the same), to smear, daub, plaster, overlay, gild, III, 19.

lüp, in lüp-din, an island, III, 2, 17.

lüt (Kh. and Sh. the same), blood (H.).

lüt (Kh. the same), hot (H.).

 $m\bar{a}$, an ass, 74. Possibly this word should really be $m\bar{a}$, a horse.

- $m\bar{a}$ (Kh. $m\bar{a}$, Sh. mau), negative particle; $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}n$ -jau, did not see, II, 12. 'In Kh. $m\bar{a}$ is used only in conditional and interrogative sentences.
- mā, come, I, 28; Past, pāk-mā, came back, I, 34; āk mā, came outside, I, 41; II, 14; mā-jau, came, II, 15; Perf., mā-ū-koi, has come, I, 37. In the second specimen the root is uniformly, but wrongly, written mā. The word is frequent in compounds; thus, aũ-mā, take come, bring, Imperat., I, 26; (went) to fetch, II, 5; pai-kā-mā. . . . jau, went went came, went, I, 21; khān-mā-chām (quick come swift=as soon as); mā-thūng-chām, as soon as (thy son) arrived, I, 47; mā-thūng, arrived, I, 34; mā-khau, entered, I, 40; rik-mā, call come, entreated, I, 41; mā . . . kā-jau, come went, came, II, 10; khām-mā-lau, word come say, a mere pleonasm for khām, word, I, 44; with regard to khān-mā-chām, above, cf. Kh. mā-chām, soon. Like kā, mā, when appended to another verb, usually gives the idea of progression.
- $m\bar{q}$ (spoken with a long tone) (Kh. $m\bar{a}$, Sh. ma, with an abrupt tone; Siamese $m\bar{a}$), a horse, 68; $m\bar{q}$ - $th\ddot{u}k$, a male horse, 138, 140; $m\bar{q}$ -me, a mare, 139, 141; $n\bar{o}$ $m\bar{q}$ $l\ddot{u}ng$, on a horse, 230.
- $m\bar{q}$ (spoken with an abrupt tone) (Kh. and Sh. $m\bar{a}$, with rising inflection, Siamese $hm\bar{a}$), a dog, 70; $m\bar{q}$ - $th\ddot{u}k$, a male dog, 145, 148; $m\bar{q}$ -me, a bitch, 147, 149.
- mā-lau-kin, ever, at any time, I, 45. The separate members of the compound are said to have no significance.
- mai, postposition. This word is frequently used as a suffix to denote any case except the nominative; thus, haü-müng-mai, of that country, I, 11; kau-mai,

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by me, II, 4; ān kau-mai, before me, 238; kau-mai po-ū, I am beaten, literally, beats me, 201, 202, 203, 204; as a genitive, only as a genitive, absolute, as in kau-mai, mine; rau-mai, ours, 16, etc.

mai (Kh. and Sh. the same), wood, tree, III, 3.

māk (Kh. and Sh. the same), a fruit; māk-mo-máng (Sh. mák-mung), a mango, II, 17. The word is used before the name of any tree to denote its fruit; thus, māk-lāng, jack-fruit.

mān (Kh. and Sh. the same; Siamese man, used only contemptuously, the plural form, khau, being used as a respectful singular), pron., he (26), she (II, 4, 13), it (I, 52). The plural is khau or mān-khau, q.v. Nom., mān (he) I, 13, 15, 30; II, 16; III, 18; 158, etc., 229, 230; (she) II, 13 (bis); (it) I, 52; $m\bar{a}n$ -ko, I, 6, 8, 10 (bis), 13, 15, 21, 22, 34 (bis), 35, 37, 39 (bis), 40, 42; in I, 1, mān, as the subject is inserted between a verb and its tense suffix. am informed that this can only be done when the subject is masculine; Acc., mān (him) I, 22, 39; III, 11; 236; (her) II, 12; Dat., (gave) to him, I, 12, 49; 234; (say) to him, I, 18, 50; man kan-pa, towards her, II, 12; luk-tam mān, from him, 235. The Genitive absolute is mān-mai, 26; the dependent genitive usually follows the noun which governs it; thus, po-mān mān, his father, I, 23; luk-mān-ko mān, his son, I, 24; shun mān, his compound, II, 8; khring bai mān, on his body, I, 27; māk-mo-máng mān, his mango-fruit, II, 17; sometimes it precedes, as in man luk, his son (to distinguish from lukmān, son), 228; mān rün, (at) his house, II, 2; mān chau, her owner, II, 4; tī mān rün, to his house, II, 6; mān shaü náng-ñüng, his grown up younger sister, II, 9; mān náng, his younger sister, II, 16; mān náng-mān mān náng-ñüng, his brother . . . his sister, 231.

mān, a pleonastic particle, said to give the idea of respect, added to male nouns of relationship. The corresponding feminine word is nung (231); po-mān, a father, I, 2, 3, 15, 22, 23, 26, 38 (mau po-mān, thy father), 41, 42; mau nang-mān, thy younger brother, I, 37; mān nang-mān, his brother, 231; luk-mān, a son, I, 1, 20, 24, 26, 30, 33; 55, 223, 225.

mán, Brahmā, III, 19.

máng, in māk-mo-máng, a mango, see māk.

maü (Kh. and Sh. the same; Siamese mūng), (also written mau, 20), the pronoun of the second person. The plural is shü, q.v. Nom., maü, thou, I, 3, 21; 20, 157, etc., 240; maü-ko, I, 20, 44, 49, 51; maü ān-nā, in thy presence, I, 19, 25; lāng maü, behind thee, 239; the genitive usually follows the governing word, as in luk-mān maü, thy son, I, 20 (also maü luk-mān, see below); phān maü, thy order, I, 43; luk maü, thy son, I, 47; nāng maü, thy younger brother, I, 53; po maü, thy father, 223; sometimes it precedes, as in maü luk-mān (see above), thy son, I, 26; maü nāng-mān, thy younger brother, I, 37; maü po-mān, thy father, I, 38; maü tāng-lai khām, all thy gold, I, 48; maü chü, thy name, 220; the Dat. is maü, I, 43 (am doing service) to thee.

me (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese $m\bar{e}$), a mother, 48; feminine suffix used with irrational animals, the corresponding masculine suffix being $th\ddot{u}k$; $h\bar{u}$ -me, a cow, II, 2, 5, 7, 9; 143, 145; $m\bar{q}$ -me, a mare, 139, 141; $m\bar{q}$ -me, a bitch, 147, 149; pe- $ng\bar{a}$ -me, a she goat, 151; $t\ddot{u}$ - $ng\bar{i}$ -me, a she deer, 154.

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- mī, a feminine suffix (like $\hat{n}\ddot{u}ng$) used with human beings, the corresponding masculine suffix being $ph\bar{u}$; $k\bar{u}n-m\bar{\imath}$, person female, a woman, I, 7; $\mathbf{52}$; $k\bar{u}n$ $d\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{\imath}$, a good woman, 128, 130; $a\ddot{u}$ $m\bar{\imath}$, to take a woman, to marry, be married to, 225.
- mī, a verb substantive, generally used only with the negative; bau mī, (I) am not (worthy), I, 20, 25; pai mī, was not, III, 1, 2, 4, Imperative (affirmative) mī, become, III, 10.

miñ, see miu.

miu, miñ (Kh. and Sh. miu, Siamese meo), a cat, 71.

mo-mång, in māk-mo-mång, a mango, see māk.

mrāt, a camel, 75.

 $m\ddot{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. $m\ddot{u}),$ a pig, I, 12, 14.

 $m\ddot{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese $m\ddot{u}$), the hand, I, 23; 32; khau $m\ddot{u}$, in (her) hand, I1, 11.

mü (Sh. the same), time, I, 48; III, 9; $k\bar{u}$ -mü $k\bar{u}$ -bān, every time every day always (I, 50), often (II, 5); $k\bar{u}$ -mü $n\bar{a}m$, each time many, over and over again, II, 5; $n\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}n$ -mü, before place time, as usual, II, 8; $m\ddot{u}$ -nai, time this, then, II, 9; $j\bar{\imath}$ - $m\ddot{u}$, beginning-time, in the beginning, III, 1.

mün (Sh. mun), to be happy, rejoice; khau mün (pl.) rejoicings, I, 36; hit-mün, rejoicing, see hit.

mün (Sh. the same), past time; pī mü mün, year time past-time, for (how many) years, I, 43.

muñ (pr. muy) (Sh. the same), first, III, 6.

müng (Kh. and Sh. the same), a country, III, 3, 8, 13, 16; pun müng, foreign country, I, 6; haü müng-bān, in that country village, in that land, I, 9; kūn-phū-lüng haü müng-mai, a man of that country, I, 11.

nā (Kh. and Sh. the same), the face, countenance; adv., before; ān-nā, before the face, before; maü ān-nā, before thee, I, 19, 25; nā-kān-mü, before (previous) place time, as usual, II, 8; khāng-nā, before, in the presence of, 90.

 $n\bar{a}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), thick, not thin, 111, 8.

 $n\bar{a}$ (Sh. the same), a field; $n\bar{a}$ -kip, a field-plot, I, 12; $n\bar{a}$ -din, field-land, field, I, 33; $k\bar{u}n$ - $n\bar{a}$ -kin, a cultivator, see $k\bar{u}n$, 58.

 $n\bar{a}$, a suffix of the future, used instead of the prefix $t\bar{i}$, with $pai-k\bar{a}$, I, 18; said to be rare except with this verb. Probably the same as $n\bar{a}$, before.

 $n\bar{a}$ (Sh. the same), very, exceedingly; $n\bar{a}m-n\bar{a}$, many very, very many, I, 5.

 $n\bar{a}$, a forest, III, 6.

nai (So. Kh. and Sh.), this; tī-nai, place this, now, I, 33; here, 222; pũ-nāng-nai, on-account-of-this, in order that, I, 45, 52; mũ-nai, time this, then, II, 9; today, 224; tām-nai, from this, then, thereon, II, 11: adv., here; now, I, 5, 54; III, 20; kā-nai, at now, now, I, 17; phraũ-nai, what now, when, I, 8, 15, 22; chū-chāng-nai, because, I, 29, 38, 53; therefore, I, 40, see chū; chāng-nai, now, I, 31; kā-shāng pī mü mün nai, what year time past-time now, for how many years, I, 43.

nai, a particle signifying unexpectedness; pai-nai-shī, going unexpectedly, II, 12. nām (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), water, 66; nam-táng, a water-pot, II, 11.

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n\bar{a}m (Kh. and Sh. the same), many, I, 5; II, 5; n\bar{a}m or n\bar{a}m is used to form
     the superlative, 134, 137, see d\bar{\imath}.
ñám, false (of an accusation), II, 1.
n\bar{a}n (Kh. and Sh. the same), pronoun, that: \bar{a}-n\bar{a}n, that (subst.), II, 7; 240;
     \bar{a}n-n\bar{a}n khām, that word, II, 15; \bar{a}-n\bar{a}n tun, that tree, 230; \bar{a}-n\bar{a}n khān, the
     price of that, 232; ā-nān rün, that house, 233; pü nān, on account of that,
     III, 13.
nán (Kh. and Sh. the same), to sleep (H.).
nāng for \hat{n}āng (I, 20), see \hat{n}āng.
nang (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), to sit, III, 4, 14; 79; nang u, is
    sitting, 230.
nang (Kh. and Sh. the same), adj. of what sort?; III, 12, 22; like that, III, 1;
    adv., as; pü-nāng-nai, on-account-of as this, in order that, I, 45.
nāng, a girl, II, 10; 131.
náng (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), a man's younger brother (I, 4, 53; 49)
    or sister; náng-mān, a younger brother, I, 37; 231; náng-nüng (II, 9; 231)
    or nung-nang (50), a younger sister; pi-nang, a younger brother (I, 3);
    náng-shaü, an adult younger sister, II, 15, 16; 225.
\tilde{n}\tilde{a}ng (Kh. and Sh. y\tilde{a}ng; also written j\tilde{a}ng, I, 14, see j\tilde{a}ng), to be, continue,
     168—170; Pres., ñāng, (the saddle) is (in the house), 226; used as a particle
    to denote continuance, aŭ-râp-dai-ñāng, take bind possess continue, keep,
     retain (imperat.) (here wrongly written nāng), I, 20.
nau (Siamese and Lao the same), cold (H.).
ngā (? Sh. ngān, castrated), in pe-ngā, a goat, 150; in Sh. pe-ngān is 'a he-goat'.
ngák (Kh. and Sh. the same), crooked (H.).
ngau (Kh. and Sh. the same), light, brilliancy, III, 21.
ng\bar{\imath}, in t\ddot{\imath}-ng\bar{\imath}, a deer, 153—155.
ngī, the younger, in luk-ngī, a younger child, I, 1, 5.
ngin (Sh. the same), to hear; ngin, he heard, I, 35.
ngün (Kh. and Sh. the same; Siamese ngön), silver, 46.
n\bar{\imath}, far, distant, I, 22; 224.
nik, in nik-ch\bar{a}, alas, 100.
niu (Kh. liu, Sh. niu), a finger; niu, on (his) finger, I, 28.
n\bar{o} or n\bar{u} (Kh. and Sh. n\ddot{u}), above, on; n\bar{o}-r\bar{o}, above the head, against, I, 19, 25;
     tun-nū, on the tree, II, 18; nō lāng mān, on his back, 227; nū doi, on the
     top of a hill, 229; n\bar{o} m\bar{a}-lüng, on a horse, 230.
noi (Sh. the same), small; ā-nān rün noi, that small house, 233.
nuk (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese n\bar{o}k), a bird, 76; nuk-t\bar{u}, a dove.
nung (Kh. and Sh. the same), to put on (clothes); nung-tang, put on (clothes, etc.)
     (imperat.), I, 27 (bis), 28.
ñüng (Kh., Sh. and Siamese ying), a female, a woman, 52; used as a suffix or prefix
    denoting sex of human beings; the corresponding masculine suffix is man
     (Kh. and Sh. chai), or lik; khā-ñüng, a female servant, I, 16; náng-ñung, II,
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9; 231 or nüng-náng, 50, a sister; luk-nüng, a daughter, 56, 110—118.

nyu-chu, an ant (H.).

- o, added to jau, to make the suffix of the pluperfect, 1, 9, 32, 49; II, 4; 193; added to the present participle in shī, makes a past participle, pai-shī, going; pai-shī-o, gone, 219.
- o (cf. Sh. hü), sign of interrogation, I, 37.
- oi, a particle signifying continuance; haü-oi-kin-klin, to give continually to eat and drink, to feed regularly, to pasture, I, 13. Cf., however, oi, to feed.
- oi (Sh. the same), to feed, III, 6.
- oi, sweet (H.).
- $p\bar{a}$ (Sh. the same), a side; $k\bar{a}n$ - $p\bar{a}$, place-side, towards, II, 12.
- $p\bar{a}$, to graze; Pres. Def., $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{u} , is grazing, 229; $p\bar{a}$ -lik, graze tend, a shepherd, 59.
- $p\bar{q}$ (Sh. the same), to accompany; $p\bar{q}$ - $k\bar{a}n$, accompanied mutually, had sexual intercourse with, I, 7.
- pai (Sh. and Siamese the same), to go, march, walk; Imperat. pai, 77, 238; Past, pai, II, 5; pai-kā, I, 5; II, 1, 6, 17; pai-kā, I, 11; pai jau, I, 23; Participle, pai-nai-shī, going unexpectedly, II, 12; compounded with kā, to go, usually with the idea of haste; Fut., pai-kā-nā, will go, I, 18; Past, pai-kā-mā. . . . jau, went and came, went to, I, 21; pai-ka-jau, went, II, 7; pai-khān, to run (H.).
- pai (Kh. pī and Sh. pai, only used in prohibition), not; pai-mī, was not, III, 3, 2, 4, 14.
- pāk (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), a hundred, 13.
- $p\bar{a}k$ (Sh. the same), the mouth, 36.
- pak (Kh. the same), to return, come back; $pak-m\bar{a}$, came back, came home, I, 34.
- pān (Kh. the same), to divide; Imperat., pān, I, 3; pān-kān, began to divide, I, 3.
- pān, the meaning of this word is unknown. In Kh. phān laü means 'what sort'? Pān occurs in pān-kū (? what-each), which is used as a relative pronoun; e.g., I, 14, (the husks) which (he gave to the swine); pān-kū luk-ko, the son who (wasted thy substance), I, 47; hū-me pān-kū, the cow which (I bought), II, 2. Other meanings of pān are 'flax', 'to divide', 'to turn round', to hold', 'bloodless'.
- pāng (Sh. the same), to be ruined; tāk-pāng, become ruined, I, 9; tāk-lu tāk-pāng, spent, I, 8.
- pe (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese hpe), a goat; pe-ngā, a goat, I, 45 (Sh. pe-ngān, a he-goat); pe-ngā thük, a he-goat, 150; pe-ngā me, a she-goat, 151. pet, see pit.
- phā, (Kh. kāng-phā,? Sh. phā, a covering, a waist-cloth, a cloud), the sky, heaven, I, 19, 25; III, 1, 4: (Kh. phā, a cloth), a garment, I, 27 (bis); phā-ko (nom.), God, III, 10; phā, God, III, 7, 15, 18, 20.
- $ph\bar{a}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), to divide; $ph\bar{a}$ -khrung- $kl\bar{a}ng$, half, 232, see khrung. phai (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese fai), fire, 65.
- $ph\acute{a}k$, a feast, I, 38, 49.
- phān, an order, III, 11; phān-khām haii, to give order word, to command, to order, I, 12, 26; phān maii, thy order, I, 43.
- phân (Kh. and Sh. the same), poor, poverty; phū phān, to float on poverty, to be poor, to be destitute, I, 10.
- phān, sorrow; phān jāk, in great sorrow, I, 42 (? connected with Sh. phān, to suffer horripilation).

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phān, to cut; as doublet in khā-phān, cut cut, to cut, see khā.

- phāng, near; phāng rün, near the house, I, 34.
- phe (Sh. $ph\bar{e}$ to spread out), to pervade, III, 20.
- phit (Sh. the same), to err, sin; Past, phit, sinned, I, 19, 24.
- phrā (Sh. phā, a flat stone), a rock; kán phrā phük, a mass of white rock, Mount Mēru, III, 16.
- phrai (Sh. phai), to go, walk, 77; phrai-kā, went, II, 8; shāng phrai-jau-shī, if (it) had gone, II, 9; phrai, (used) to go, II, 4; phrai... jau-koi, (I) have walked, 224.
- phraü (Kh. and Sh. phaü), interrog. pron., who?, 92; lik-khā phraü, whose boy?, 239; luk phraü, from whom?, 240; phraü-nai, what now?, when, I, 8, 15, 22; as an indef. pron., phraü nā-kip, a certain field, I, 12; phraü kun-phring, what multitude of persons, how many persons, I, 16; phraü bau, no one, I, 14; phraü pai mī, there was no one, III, 4; phraü pai, the same, III, 14.
- $phr\bar{\imath}$ (Sh. $ph\bar{\imath}$, Siamese $p\bar{\imath}$), a ghost (II, 14); a devil (61); an inferior deity, III, 11.
- phring (Sh. the same), to be many; used as a suffix to form the plural as $k\bar{u}n$ phring, persons, I, 16.
- phrum (Kh. and Sh. phum, Siamese pham), hair, 39.
- phrüng (Kh. and Sh. phüng, a bee), a honey-comb, III, 12, 22.
- phū (Sh. and Siamese the same, in Kh. phū is used to designate the male of birds) a man, a male person; used as a suffix of gender for human beings, the corresponding feminine suffix being mī; phū-lüng, here used as a generic word with a numeral, a male, I, 36; kūn-phū, person male, a man, I, 1, 11, 12; 51; kūn dī phū, person good male, a good man, 119—122; phū-ai luk-mān, male elder son, the elder son, I, 33.
- $ph\bar{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), to float; $ph\bar{u}$ - $ph\bar{a}n$ jau, he floated on misery, became indigent, I, 10.
- phük (Kh. and Sh. the same), white, III, 16; an phük mā, the saddle of the white horse, 226.
- $ph\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{q}$ - $t\bar{q}$ - $r\bar{q}$, (Kh. and Sh. $phr\bar{q}$, cf. Burmese, bu- $r\bar{q}$, pronounced $phr\bar{q}$) God, 60. Cf. $ph\bar{a}$.
- pī (Kh. and Sh. the same), a year; luk-pī-ai, son year first-born, eldest son, I, 41, kā-shāng pī mü mün nai, what year time past-time now, for how many years, I, 43; rō-pī-lüng, before year one, a year ago, II, 3; ship pit pī, eighteen years (old), II, 10.
- $p\bar{\imath}$ (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese $ph\bar{\imath}$), an elder brother (I, 3, 4; 49) or sister; $p\bar{\imath}$ kai, elder brother, I, 3; $p\bar{\imath}$ -nug, elder sister, 50.
- $p\bar{\imath}$ (Kh. the same), fat (H.).
- pik (Kh. $ping-h\bar{u}$), the ear, 38.
- pin (Kh. and Sh. the same), to be, exist, become, III, 11, 19, 20; pin, was, III, 1, 7, 15, 18; pin-jau, it was (sunset), II, 7; pin-koi, it happened, II, 9; used to form potential verbs; kau-ko pin hit-mün, (that) I may be able to rejoice, lit. (that) I become to rejoice, I, 46; kau pin-ū, I may be, 172; kau pin-po, I may strike, 194.

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pit (pr. pet) (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), eight, 8; ship pit, eighteen, II, 10. pit (pr. pet) (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), a duck, 73.

 $pl\bar{a}$ (Sh. and Kh. $p\bar{a}$, Siamese $pl\bar{a}$), a fish (H.).

plai, thus (H.).

- pláng, clear; (uñ-chaŭ-pláng), gladness mind clear, his mind (would) have been glad and clear, he (would) fain, I, 13.
- po (Kh. and Sh. the same), to strike, beat, 81; Imperat., po, 175; po-shī, 236; Participle, po-shī, 177, 178; Pres., po, 179—184; Pres. Def., po-ū, am striking, 191; Imperf., po-ū-jau, was striking, 192; Past, po-jau, struck, 185—190; Perf., po-koi, have struck, 228; Plup., po-jau-o, had struck, 193; Fut., tī-po, shall strike, 195—200; Potential, pin-po, can strike, 194; Past Conditional, tī-po-jau, should strike, 201; Passive same as Active, 202—204; po-tai, to kill (H.).
- po (Kh. po, Sh. pō, Siamese bo, pronounced pho), a father, 47; Nom. po kau, my father, 233; Voc., po ai, I, 2, 18, 24; Dat., tī po, 103; tī po kau, (will go) to my father, I, 18; Abl., luk po, 104; Gen., po, 102; po maŭ rün, your father's house, 223; Pl., khau po, 106. Frequently takes the pleonastic suffix mān; Nom., po-mān mān, his father, I, 23; maŭ po-mān, thy father, I, 38; po-mān-ko, I, 41; Dat., po-mān, I, 2; 42; tī po-mān, I, 22; Gen., kau po-mān rün, my father's house, I, 15.
- poi (Sh. poi or pai), to exceed, be more; hence, conj., and, moreover, I, 1, 3, 4, 17, 19, 21, 24, 26, 27, 28; 232; again, I, 30, 54; III, 9, 18; poi-ān, and before, and, I, 25, 35, 51, 54; poi-lun-lāng, again after back, and moreover, I, 10.
- pü (Kh. and Sh. the same), on account of; pü-năng-nai, on-account-of, as this, in order that, I, 45; (it is right) that, I, 52; pü-năn, on account of that, III, 13.
- pun (Sh. the same), prep. beyond; pun-müng, beyond a country, a foreign country, T. 6.

pün, world; tī pün, place of world, world, III, 8, 17.

rā, much (H).

 $r\bar{a}$, in $ph\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, q.v.

rai (Kh. hai), to lose; rai-dai, lose possess, lose; rai-dai-jau, lost, I, 7; rai-dai, lost, I, 48; II, 2; rai-dai, was lost, I, 30; rai-dai-jau, was lost, I, 54.

 $r\bar{a}k$ (Sh. $h\bar{a}k$, Siamese $r\bar{a}k$), compassion, I, 23.

rán, rám, deserted, confused, chaos, nom. rán-ko, III, 1; rám, III, 13.

rán (Kh. and Sh. hán, Siamese rán), hot (H.).

rang (Kh. and Sh. hang), a tail, skeleton.

ráng (Kh. and Sh. háng), to call out, shout; ráng, addressed, I, 41; ráng-hai-kā, shouted out loudly, II, 13.

ráng (Sh. hán), to uphold, sustain, III, 16.

- rāng-kān, to consult; probably from rāng, to arrange (Sh. hāng), and kān, mutually.
- rấp (Sh. hấp), to encircle, bind; aŭ-rấp-dai-nāng, take bind possess continue, take and keep (me), make (me a servant), I, 20; chī-rấp-chấp-khấp-bai, jewel bind pure round place, a finger-ring, I, 28.

rau, in the air, unsupported, III, 12, 22.

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- rau (Kh. and Sh. hau, Siamese rau), we, the plural of kau, I; Nom., rau-ko, I, 52; rau, 17; ours, rau-mai, 19.
- $r\bar{e}$, what? (H.).
- rik (Sh. hik, Siamese rik), to say, call; rik, (he) called, summoned, I, 35; rik- $m\bar{\alpha}$, to call and come, to entreat; $r\tilde{\alpha}ng$ rik- $m\bar{\alpha}$, addressed and entreated, I, 41.
- rik, a relation; kūn-rik-tai, relations and playmates, friends, I, 46.
- ring (Kh. and Sh. hing, pr. heng), a thousand, III, 8, 19.
- rō (Kh. and Sh. hō, Siamese huā), the head, 40; nō rō, on the head, against; phā nō-rō, against heaven, I, 19, 25; prep., before; rō pī lüng, before year one, one year ago, II, 3.
- rō, to know, III, 10, 11; thām-khām-rō, ask word know, enquired, I, 36.
- $r\ddot{u}$ (Kh. and Sh. $h\ddot{u}$), a boat (H.).
- $r\ddot{u}k$ (pronounced $r\ddot{o}k$) (Kh., Sh. and Siamese $h\ddot{o}k$), numeral, six, 6.
- rün (Kh. and Sh. hün, Siamese rüen), a house, 67; rün, in the house, I, 15, 41; 223; rün, into the house, I, 40; măn rün, (in) his house, II, 2; khau rün, in the house, 226; khau ā-nān rün, in that house, 233; phāng rün, near the house, I, 34; rün ák, outside the house, I, 41; rün, to the house, II, 4; tī mān rün, to his house, II, 6.
- rung, ripe (H.).
- shai (Kh. and Sh. kai), far, 89; kī-shai, how far, 222; shai·nī, far distant, a long way, 224.
- shai (Kh. and Sh. the same), a rope; Instr., tāng shai, (bind him) with a rope, 236.
- shām (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese sām), numeral, three, 3.
- shāng or shāng-bā (Kh. and Sh. shāng or shāng-wā), conditional conjunction, if, II, 6 (shāng-bā), 8 (shāng); 97; with chāng in apodosis, I, 13 (shāng-bā); shāng-bā, as if, II, 13; kā-shāng, interrog. neuter pronoun, what?, I, 36; 93, 220; how many?, I, 43.
- sháng (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese song), numeral, two; I, 3, 4; 2, 105, 114, 123; luk-mān sháng-kūn, sons two-persons, two sons, I, 1.
- shaü (Kh. and Sh. shau), a grown up young woman, II, 9, 13; bāng-shaü, harlot young-woman, a harlot, I, 49; náng-shaü, an adult younger sister, II, 15, 16; 225.
- shaü (Kh. khau, Sh. shaü, to enter; shaü-ŭ-koi, has entered, was in, I, 33. See khau.
- shaü (Kh. and Sh. shau, Siamese yī-sip), numeral, twenty, 11.
- shaü-hing (pronounced heng) (Kh. the same), to use, make use of; bai shaü-hing, I used watching, I used to watch, II, 4. The separate parts of the compound are not explained.
- shī (Kh. the same), a particle used as a suffix giving an indefinite participial force to the verb, usually, but not always, that of the present; tai-shī, dying, I, 17; tai-shī-jau, was dying, I, 30; pai-nai-shī, going unexpectedly, II, 12; ñāng-shī or ū-shī, being, 170; having been, 171; po-shī, beating, 177; having beaten, 178; pai-shī, going, 218; pai-shī-o, gone (o is a particle of past time), 219; the indefinite force of the particle is well seen in phrai-jau-shī (to see if the cow) had gone, II, 9; shī-ko, although, II, 12.

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 $sh\bar{i}$, a particle optionally added to the imperative; bai- $sh\bar{i}$, put, 227; po- $sh\bar{i}$, beat, 236; $khat \cdot bai \cdot sh\bar{\imath}$, bind, 236; $tet\ n\bar{a}m\ sh\bar{\imath}$, draw water $(n\bar{a}m)$, 237. shī (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese, sī), numeral, four, 4. shing (pronounced sheng), a ray of light, III, 21. ship (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese sip), numeral, ten, 10; hā-ship, five tens, fifty, 12; ship-pit (pet), eighteen, II, 10. sho, a complaint, II, 1, 2. $sh\bar{u}$, to wish; $jan-sh\bar{u}$, ask wish, (I) ask that, I, 2. sh \ddot{u} , in III, 2, seems to mean 'or'. Major Jenkins identified it with $sh\bar{u}$, wish. shü (Kh. and Sh. shū, Siamese sū), pronoun of the second person plural, you, ye; 23-25; 160, etc.; khráng shü, your property. shuk (Kh. and Sh. the same), ripe (H.). shum (Kh. and Sh. the same), sour, acid (H.). shun (Kh. and Sh. the same), the grounds round a house, a compound; khau shun, into the compound, II, 8, 10. shung (Kh, and Sh. the same, Siamese sūng), high, lofty, 135; khūn shung luk, higher than, 136; khun shung nām nām, highest, 137. shung (Kh. and Sh. the same), to take away (H.). shup (Kh. and Sh. the same), the mouth, 36; shup-mu, to be silent (H.). $t\bar{a}$, to feel; $(k\bar{u}-k\bar{a}n-t\bar{a})$, began to feel fear, II, 13. $t\bar{a}$, (Kh., Sh. and Siamese $t\bar{a}$), the eye, 35. $t\bar{a}$, in $ph\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, q.v. tai (Kh., Sh. and Siamese the same), to die, 33; tai-shī, dying (participle used as present tense), I, 17; tai-shī-jau, was dying, was dead, I, 30; tai-jau, died, I, 53; po-tai, to kill (H.). tai, a playmate, a companion, I, 47. tai (Kh. and Sh. the same), near, 87. tāk, to become; tāk-lu tāk-pāng, become diminished become ruined, hence, spent, I, 8; $t\bar{a}k$ -ip- $t\bar{a}k$, become famine misery, I, 9. tāk, misery, I, 9, see preceding. $t\bar{a}k$, to consider, III, 10. $t\tilde{a}k$, apparently a numeral suffix used with rupees; $tr\tilde{a}-sh\tilde{a}ng-t\tilde{a}k$, rupee two pieces, two rupees, 232. $t\bar{a}m$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), low, not high (H.). $t\bar{a}m$ (Sh. the same), a place; luk- $t\bar{a}m$, from, see luk. tang (Kh. and Sh. the same), with, in company with, II, 11; with, by means of; tăng khán, (beat) with a cudgel, 228; tăng shai, (bind) with a rope, 236, tāng (Kh. and Sh. the same), to put, place; nung-tāng, the same; nung-tāng (imperat.), place, I, 27 (bis), 28.

 $t\bar{a}ng$ (Kh. and Sh. the same), all, I, 5, 7, 8; II, 14; 134 (see $d\bar{\imath}$); $t\bar{a}ng$ -lai, all all, II, 4, 48, 51; $t\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, all all, III, 4; $t\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, III, 13, the same.

tāng (Kh. and Sh. the same), a road; tāng nī, road distant, at a distance on the road, I, 22.

táng (cf. Sh. táng, to water, to pour water on), a pot; nām-táng, a water-pot, II, 11.

táng (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese tháng-noi), the belly, 42; thün táng, to fill the belly, I, 14; klāng táng, within the belly, I, 17.

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- tau, a bone (H.).
- taü (Kh. and Sh. the same), down, not up, III, 2; 88; kā-taü ā-nān tun, under that tree, 230; taü-phā, bottom heaven, below and above, earth and heaven, III, 1.
- $t\bar{e}$ (Sh. the same), set up, establish; be established, be; $t\bar{e}$ -jau, was, III, 3, 6, 8, 17.
- thām (Kh. and Sh. the same), to ask, enquire; thām-khām-rō, ask word know, enquired, I, 36.
- thau (Kh. and Sh. the same), to be old; $k\bar{\imath}$ thau, how old?, 221.
- thük (Kh. and Sh. the same), a male animal; a masculine suffix used with irrational animals, 138, 140, 142, 144, 146, 148, 150, 153.
- $th\ddot{u}n$, to fill; $sh\ddot{a}ng-b\ddot{a}$ $m\ddot{a}n-ko$ $th\ddot{u}n$ $t\ddot{a}ng$, if he could have filled his belly, I, 14.
- thün (Kh. and Sh. the same), a jungle, forest, III, 5.
- thuñ, very, I, 39.
- thüng (Kh. and Sh. the same), to arrive; $m\bar{q}$ -thüng, came arrived, arrived, I, 34, 47; although the root thüng means 'arrival', it is never used without $m\bar{q}$ prefixed.
- $t\bar{\imath}$, to stand up (H.).
- tī (Kh. and Northern Sh. the same, Siamese tē, Southern Sh. lāk), a place, situation, III, 8, 17; tī-nai, place this, now, I, 33; a prefix used to form (1) the dative case, and (2) the future tense. Examples, (1) tī po kau, (will go) to my father, I, 18; tī po-mān, (went) to (his) father, I, 22; tī mān rün, to his house, II, 6; Cf. 103, 108, 112, 117, 121, 126; tī-nai luk-tām Kāshmīr, to here from Kashmīr, 222; (2) ti . . . khūn, will arise (cf. nā), I, 17; cf. 173, 195—200, 204. A past subjunctive is formed with tī-koi following the verb, as in ū-tī-koi, should be, 174, or by adding jau to the future, as in tī-po-jau, should strike, 201.
- tim (Sh. the same), to fill, III, 3.
- tin (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese tá-tin), a foot, 33; tin khau, on his foot, I, 28.
- tit (pronounced tet), there, I, 9; II, 7, 9, 15.
- tit (pronounced tet), in tit-nām, to draw water; imperative, tit-nām-shī, 237.
- to (Sh. $t\bar{o}$), now, present time; to- $l\bar{a}k$, nevertheless, I, 44.
- to, in káng-to, q.v. In khān-to, q.v.
- $tr\bar{\alpha}$ (Kh. $tr\bar{\alpha}$), a rupee; $\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{u} $tr\bar{\alpha}$, this rupee, 234; khau $tr\bar{\alpha}$, those rupees, 235; $tr\bar{\alpha}$ - $sh\bar{\alpha}ng$ - $t\bar{\alpha}k$, two rupees, 232.
- tū (Kh. and Sh. the same), a body; a generic prefix or suffix used with numerals when animals are counted, as in tū sháng-shaü mü, body two-twenty pig, or mü sháng-shaü tū, pig two-twenty body, twenty-two pigs.
- $t\ddot{u}$, in $t\ddot{u}$ - $b\bar{a}$ (Kh. to- $w\bar{a}$), but, I, 22, 47; II, 16; 96; also written $t\bar{u}$ (pronounced $t\bar{o}$)- $b\bar{a}$, 96.
- tü, in tü-án (Kh. tō-ān), a boy, 129. Cf. Sh. tū pronounced tō, a body; án is a diminutive particle.
- $t\ddot{u}$, in $t\ddot{u}$ - $ng\bar{\imath}$, a deer, 153—155.
- tuk (Kh. and Sh. the same), to fall; $kh\bar{a}m$ $tuk-k\bar{a}$, evening fell, II, 11; $b\bar{a}n-tuk$, sun fall, evening, II, 7.

- tun (Kh. and Sh. the same, Siamese $t\bar{o}n$), a tree; $tun-n\bar{a}$, on the tree, II, 18; $k\bar{a}-ta\bar{u}$ $\bar{a}-n\bar{a}n$ tun, under that tree, 230.
- tün, in tün-tün in III, 9. Transliterated by Major Jenkins tan-tan, but the original is clearly tün-tün. Tün means 'after that,' 'afterwards,' so that tün-tün is a doublet meaning 'afterwards.'

tüng (Kh., Sh. and Siamese tün), to be awake (H.).

- \bar{u} , in $\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$, this, see $\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$.
- \bar{u} , straight (H.).
- uñ (pronounced uy), gladness, I, 13; see chaü.
- uy, see uñ.
- yuk (pronounced $y\bar{o}k$) (Kh. and Sh. the same), to lift up, raise (H.).

KHĀMTĪ.

Khāmtī is spoken at the east end of the Lakhimpur District, between Mishmi and Singpho, on the south side of the Brahmaputra. It is also spoken by large numbers in the Khāmtī Long country, beyond our frontier.

A history of the Khāmtīs is given ante, p. 63, and a list of authorities regarding their language will be found on p. 77. Mr. Needham is of opinion that almost all the words used in Khāmtī are quite different from those in use among Dr. Cushing's Shān. As explained on p. 66 ante, I am, with all deference to Mr. Needham's superior authority, unable to agree to this somewhat sweeping statement. A glance at the Āhom vocabulary on pp. 120 and ff. will show how closely allied Shān (especially Northern Shān), Khāmtī, and Āhom are to each other. I should prefer to look upon Khāmtī, Northern Shān, and Southern Shān, as three very closely allied dialects of the Northern Tai language.

We are fortunate, as regards Khāmtī, in having Mr. Needham's excellent Grammar for a guide. There is, therefore, no need for an elaborate analysis of the language, such as has been made for Āhom.

It will be sufficient to give a brief summary of its principal grammatical peculiarities based on Mr. Needham's work. For the sake of brevity, I shall abandon the use of phrases such as 'words performing the functions of nouns,' words performing the functions of verbs,' and so forth, and shall speak only of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, etc., but it must be throughout remembered that the case is exactly the same as in other Siamese-Chinese languages, and that though, for shortness, I may use the word 'noun,' I mean really 'a word performing the function of a noun,' and so for the other parts of speech. Like Ähom, Khāmtī, properly speaking, has no parts of speech.

ALPHABET.

The Khāmtī Alphabet, which is a variety of the Shān Alphabet, which, in its turn, was borrowed in historic time from the Burmese, contains thirty-three letters. Of these sixteen are vowels and seventeen are consonants. It is not so complete as the older \bar{A} hom Alphabet. In the vowels it has not the letters \bar{q} and \bar{e} , the first of which, however, occurs in Shān. In the consonants, like Shān, it wants the letters g, gh, j, jh, d, dh, b, and bh. It has, however, the letters y and w which are wanting in \bar{A} hom.

The Khāmtī letters as used in writing will be found under Āhom, ante, p. 81. The following is the Khāmtī Alphabet in the usual printing characters. It differs from the written letters in not having the black dot which is so characteristic of the latter. In another column I have given the Shān Alphabet for the sake of comparison.

VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS.

	Khāmtī.	Shān.	Transliteration.	Pronunciation.	
1	နာ	As in Khāmtī	a, ā	As in 'America', 'father'.	
2	ညေ	>>	đ	As in 'father'.	

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VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS—continued.

	Khāmtī.	Shān.	Transliteration.	Pronunciation.
3	කි	As in Khāmtī	$i,~e,~ar{\imath},~ar{e}$	As in 'pin', 'met', 'pique,' and as the ey in 'they respectively.
4	ත්ව	"	ī	As in 'pique'.
5	ಭ	,,	u, ü, ō	As the u in 'bull', the oo in 'loot', and the o in 'pope', respectively.
6	ဆူ	"	$ar{u}$	As the oo in 'loot'.
7	ကော်	2)	e, ē	As the e in 'met', or the ey in 'they'.
8	ကော	>>	ο, δ	As the o in 'often', and the o in 'pope', respectively. The former is the short sound of No. 15.
9	ဆူဝိ	කුරි	ō	As in 'pope'.
10	చ్చోర్	As in Khāmtī	ü, ü	As in German, but both short and long.
11	ഹ'	,,	ai	As the i in 'shine'.
12	చ్	රියා	au	As the ow in 'how'.
13	ನ್ನು	७ ई	· aü	A diphthong.
14	ಹೆಂ	As in Khāmtī	iū, iau, eō	Diphthongs.
15	æ	23	â	As the a in 'all'.
16	್ಟಾ	79	oi.	As in 'boil'.
	ſ	,	CONSON.	ANTS.
17	က	0	ka	As in 'king'.
18	8	వ	kha	As in Bengali.
19	С	As in Khāmtī	nga	As in 'king'.
20	ಖ	00	cha	As in chair. In Shān pronounced as s.
21	ಉ	သ	sha	Like the Bengali म. In Shān transliterated hs, and pronounced as an aspirated s.
22	¥	ರ್	ña, na, ya	Usually ny, but sometimes pronounced n, and sometimes y.
23	တ	As in Khāmtī	ta	As in Bengali.

KHĀMTĪ.

CONSONANTS—continued.

***************************************	Khāmtī. Shān.		Transliteration.	Pronunciation.		
24	8	As in Khāmtī.	tha	As in Bengali.		
25	ج ې	ે લ	na	As in Therish		
26	G	O	pa	As in English.		
27	co or co	æ	pha	As in Bengali.		
28	ပ	As in Khāmti ,	ma			
. 29	ယ	"	ya ya			
30	૧	,,	ra			
31	00	,,	la	As in English.		
32	O	,,	wa			
33	ಕ್ಕಿ	ទ	ha			

As regards the **Vowels**, the vowel ϖ α (No. 1) is considered by Native Tai scholars to be a consonant, as in Siamese and Shān. It is used, as in Āhom, merely as a fulcrum for carrying other vowels when initial. The vowel inherent in every consonant, to which no other vowel is supplied, is usually α , not $\bar{\alpha}$ as in Āhom. Hence, as ϖ is considered a consonant, it is inherent in it too, so that, just as \Re stands for initial i, so ϖ stands for initial α .

It will be observed that the vowel \mathfrak{S} (No. 3) has no less than four different pronunciations. The pronunciation is indicated in each case by the transliteration. Similarly \mathfrak{Q} is pronounced in three different ways, and the sound in any particular case is shown by the transcription. So also for the other vowels.

Letters Nos. 9, 10, and 14 end in δ . This δ is only used when the vowel is final. It is dropped when medial.

In the above table, the vowels are all given in their initial forms, i.e., attached to ∞ . They can similarly be attached to any other consonant. The following are examples:—

or $k\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}$, k

Every Consonant has the letter a inherent in it. When it is desired to pronounce a consonant (standing alone) without the inherent vowel, as, for instance, at the end of

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a closed syllable, the mark $^{\circ}$ is placed over it. Thus ∞ ka but ∞ k. The letter ω ma (No. 28), however, when final does not take this mark. Instead of this it becomes $^{\circ}$, a small circle, written above the preceding consonant; thus, $_{\circ}$ 3 nam, water, for $_{\circ}$ 5; $_{\circ}$ 3 khám, language, for $_{\circ}$ 5. When the preceding vowel is $^{\circ}$ i, this and the small circle are written $^{\circ}$ 6. Thus, $_{\circ}$ 6 tim.

Mr. Needham transliterates the letter cosha (No. 21) by sa, but adds that it is pronounced like a Bengali π . 1 therefore transliterate it by sha, not sa.

The letter \mathcal{Y} $\tilde{n}a$ (No. 22) is properly pronounced nya, like the Bengali \mathfrak{P} . It is sometimes pronounced like an ordinary na, as in $\mathcal{B}\mathcal{Y}$ $khi\tilde{n}$, pronounced $kh\bar{e}n$, more. Sometimes it has the force of a mere ya, as in $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{Y}$ $nu\tilde{n}$, pronounced $n\bar{o}y$. In such cases I shall transliterate according to pronunciation, thus $kh\bar{e}n$, not $khe\tilde{n}$; $n\bar{o}y$, not $nu\tilde{n}$.

A final ∞ t is often written ∞ ch. Thus het, to do, is usually written ∞ hech. This is an imitation of Burmese, in which a final ch is pronounced t.

The letters ∞ la (No. 31) and ∞ na (No. 25) are freely interchangeable.

As in \bar{A} hom ∞ ya (No. 29), q ra (No. 30), and q wa (No. 32), can be compounded with other consonants. Such compounds are rare in Khāmtī, but they do occur. There are no compounds with la, as there are in \bar{A} hom.

when compounded, takes the form \downarrow , thus $\triangleleft \circlearrowleft \mathcal{O}$, myek, to carry on the shoulder. $\triangleleft ra$, when compounded, takes the form \bigcirc , as in $\bigcirc \bigcirc tr\bar{a}$, a rupee. $\circ wa$, when compounded, becomes the vowel \hat{a} (No. 15). Thus $\triangleleft \mathcal{O}$ $m\hat{a}k$, a blossom. We have a double compound in words like $\bigcirc \bigcirc \mathcal{O}$ $\bar{a}khy\hat{a}ng$, purport, a word borrowed from the Burmese $\bigcirc \bigcirc \mathcal{O}$:

Tones.—In Shān there are ten tones. In Khāmtī, according to Mr. Needham, there are at least three. Robinson in his grammar (while he only describes three) appears to recognise four tones, viz.—

- (1) The rising tone. This is the natural pitch of the voice, with a slight rising inflection at the end, as $m\bar{a}$, a dog. It is not indicated by any special mark, and corresponds to Dr. Cushing's first, or 'natural' tone in Shān.
- (2) The straightforward tone, of an even pitch. Robinson does not mention or describe this tone, but in a number of words (nearly all of which have this tone in Shān) he puts the *vowel* of the word into special type. Thus po, a father. As Robinson makes no other provision for this tone, it appears that he intended to indicate it by this typographical device, but omitted to draw attention to it. This tone corresponds to Dr. Cushing's third, or 'straightforward' tone in Shān.
- (3) The falling tone. This Robinson indicates by putting the *consonant* of the word into special type, as in $m\bar{a}$, to come. It appears to correspond to Dr. Cushing's

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fourth or 'high' tone in Shan. It is evident that the method adopted for indicating it is unsatisfactory when the word consists of a single vowel.

(4) The emphatic tone. In this there is an abrupt termination, or sudden cessation of the voice at the end of the word. Robinson indicates it by a dot under the vowel, as in $m\bar{q}$, a horse. It corresponds to Dr. Cushing's fifth or 'emphatic' tone.

The above system makes no provision for Dr. Cushing's second or 'grave' tone, or for his double series of closed and open tones.

So far as is possible, I shall follow Robinson's system of indicating tones throughout the grammatical sketch only. The area of vocabulary covered by his account of the language is too small to allow me to extend his system to the specimens.

Robinson is not always consistent in his representation of tones, and for some words in the grammatical sketch I have been unable to ascertain the tones with certainty. Hence my indications should only be accepted faute de mieux.

For further information on the general subject of tones reference should be made to pp. 67 and ff. ante.

NOUNS.

Gender.—Gender is unknown. In order to distinguish sex, either different words are used, such as Gol po, father; co mē, mother, or else differentiating words are added.

In the latter case, the male word is *chai* for human beings, *thük* for inferior animals, and $ph\bar{u}$ for birds. The female word is $p\bar{a}$ -ying or shau for human beings, $m\bar{e}$ for inferior animals and birds. Thus,—

လူက် ဟု luk chai, son, လူက် ဇာ္ဂြ luk shau, daughter.

တွေဝီ ဆွန**်** ပေ က tō-án pā chai, a တုဝီ သွန် ပေ ယင်း tō-án pā ying, a male child, female child.

ယု လိုက် $m\bar{q}$ $th\ddot{u}k$, a horse, ယု ေပ $m\bar{q}$ $m\bar{e}$, a mare.

ရာက် ကူ $n \bar{o} k \ p h \bar{u}$, a male bird, ရောက် ဖေ $n \bar{o} k \ m \bar{e}$, a hen bird.

Number.—The plural is indicated (when necessary) by prefixing or suffixing khau. When there is a pronoun or definite article it is suffixed to it. Thus,—

S ගේ pet khau, ducks; පින් ශ් pet nai khau, the ducks; නා ශූති දි දිරි ā-nan khau ngō, those (a-nan) cows. In Āhom, khau is prefixed.

Case.—The relationship of case is formed by prefixing or suffixing words, as in Ahom.

The Nominative takes no prefix or suffix,

The Accusative usually takes no suffix. Sometimes it takes of mai.

Mai is also optionally used as a suffix of the dative and the locative.

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The Genitive takes no prefix or suffix, but is placed after the governing word. Thus \mathcal{S} hang, a tail, or $p\bar{a}$, a fish; \mathcal{S} or hang $p\bar{a}$, a fish's tail; \mathcal{S} mü, hand, of man, he, \mathcal{S} of mü man, his hand.

Other prefixes and suffixes used to indicate cases are the following. A line following a word indicates a prefix. When two words are separated by a line, it indicates that the noun is placed between them;

ti—, ti—mai, to.
luk—, luk—mai, from.
hang—, to, for.
au—, with, by means of.
tang—, with, together with.

Adjectives.—These do not change for gender. They follow the nouns they qualify. Thus $aggreentsize{10}{3} k \bar{o} n n \bar{i}$, a good $(n \bar{i})$ man. Particles indicating number or case are appended to the last word.

The Comparative is formed by prefixing khen, more, to the adjective, and adding mai or lüm-shī. Thus,—

ကုန	മാ വ	ల ీ	<i></i>	ಲು (ಎ<್ಫ	835	య్థో
$oldsymbol{k}ar{o}n$ man	$ar{ ext{a-n}}ui$ this	<i>mai</i> than	k <i>ōn</i> man	$ar{ t a}$ -n an	khen more	thau old,
i.e., that 1	nan (is) older th	an this man.				•
Ą	చాచ్	Bys	య్త	යුරි ඉදු		ದ್ಯಾವಾನ್
h <i>i</i> i	$\mathbf{a}n$	khen	$oldsymbol{y}aoldsymbol{\ddot{u}}$	$l\ddot{u}m$ -s $har{\imath}$		ā-nan
boat	which	\mathbf{more}	large	than		that,
i.e., a boar	t which is larger	than that.	_			,

To form the Superlative we say 'more than all', as in khen yaü lüm-shī tāng-müng, larger than all, largest. Sometimes $t\bar{\imath}$ is prefixed to $t\bar{a}ng$ -müng, as khen yaü lüm $t\bar{\imath}$ tāng-müng.

The Numerals are given in the list of words. All are pronounced with the rising tone except $l\ddot{u}ng$, one; $sh\bar{\iota}_i$, four; $h\bar{\iota}_i$, five; shau, twenty. The following are not in the list of words: c heng, a thousand; c $m\ddot{u}n$, ten thousand; c shen, a hundred thousand.

The figures are,—

 $\otimes \mathcal{E}$ lüng, one, is usually written \mathfrak{I} .

Generic words can be added to numerals, as in Āhom. Mr. Needham's grammar gives twelve common ones. We may mention $\nabla \delta k \bar{\rho}$, used when counting human beings; $\nabla \delta t \bar{\rho}$, used when counting animals; and $\partial \zeta \delta$ an (? straightforward tone), used in counting things generally.

I regret that I do not know the tones of khen or of lum-shi.

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A numeral precedes the word it qualifies, unless a generic word is used, when it follows. The generic word itself follows the numeral, except in the case of the numeral 'one', when it precedes it. Thus,—

ార్తి β β shām khün, three nights.

ထုန် ဇာဇိ ထုစ် kōn shām-kō, men three-persons, three men.

ωδ φδ chāng tō-lüng, elephant animal one, one elephant.

φεδ κόn kặ-lüng, man person-one, one man.

PRONOUNS.

The **Personal Pronouns** have special forms for the plural. In other respects they are declined exactly like nouns. They are,—

Singular.	Plural.
තු kau, I	β hau, ος tū, or γη hā, we.
∑ maü, thou	\mathfrak{P}_{k} $shar{u}$, ye or you.
ως man, he, she, it	$\oint khau$ or

In the first person, hau is the same as our 'we', $t\bar{u}$ excludes the person addressed, and $h\bar{a}$ is really a dual, and means 'we two', both of us. There are a number of compound pronouns. The following are given by Mr. Needham. I do not know the tones.

ερε βδ hāng khü, we two.

cgε βδ sháng khü, you two.

υρδ οι sháng khā or κ δ ο οι n'khā, they two (excluding the speaker and person addressed).

In the last word &8 \ddot{u} is the negative, and, as such, has the sound of the French word un. In such cases, I follow Mr. Needham in transliterating it by n.

To give the idea of respect \bigotimes chau, master, is added to a pronoun. Thus man chau, he (respectfully). I do not know what tone chau has in Khāmtī. In Shān it is chau. Of \bigotimes $p\bar{a}$ chau (tones unknown) gives the force of a reflexive pronoun. Thus, maü $p\bar{a}$ chau, you yourself.

The Demonstrative Pronouns are with \bar{a} and \bar{a} a

They are adjectives, and follow the nouns they qualify. The initial \bar{a} or $\bar{a}n$ is often dropped. Nai, by itself, is often used as a definite article.

The Relative Pronoun is ∞ and δ are δ and δ and δ and δ and δ are δ and δ and δ and δ and δ are δ and δ and δ and δ are δ and δ and δ are δ and δ and δ are δ and δ are δ are δ are δ and δ are δ and δ are δ ar

Interrogative pronouns are sometimes used as relatives.

The Interrogative Pronouns are വ് phaü, who? നു സ് kā shang, what? and വ് ് ā laü, which.

There are several indefinite pronouns, such as of m' phaü kai, or of my phaü ko, any one, some one, etc. I do not know the tones of kai and ko.

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VERBS.

As in Ahom, there is no proper conjugation of verbs. There is no change for number or person. The bare root is quite commonly used for any tense, especially for the present and past.

The following is the method of expressing the relations of tense of the verb 0.85 kin, eat.

Present, -kau kin, I cat.

Present Definite,—kau kin ū, I am eating.

Past, $-kau kin k\bar{a}$, I atc. Sometimes $m\bar{a}$ is used, as in kau po $m\bar{a}$, I struck. I do not know the tones of $k\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{a}$.

Perfect,—kau kin kā yau, or kau kin yau, I have eaten.

Future,—kau tī kin, I shall eat.

Imperative,—kin tā, eat.

Negative Imperative,— $p\bar{\imath}$ kin $t\bar{a}$, do not eat.

Permissive Imperative,—kin haü tā, allow to eat, let (him) eat.

Infinitive,—kin, to eat.

Infinitive of purpose,—hang kin, in order to eat.

Participle,—kin shī (tone not known), having eaten.

Adverbial Participle, -mü kin nai, after eating, on eating.

The prefixes and suffixes are quite commonly widely separated from the root. A prefix commonly appears at the beginning of the sentence, and a suffix at the end, while the verb itself is in the middle. As explained in the General Introduction to this group (see pp. 74 and ff.), it is not the verb which is placed in past, present, or future tense, but the whole sentence.

There is no **passive** voice. As explained in the General Introduction (pp. 74 and ff.), the passive is the same as the active.

As explained in the General Introduction (pp. 70 and ff.) Compound verbs are extremely common.

PARTICLES.

The **Negative particles** are 85n, and $n\bar{a}$. 85n, regarding the transliteration of which see p. 147, is used in direct negation, as in 85n, 85n, regarding the $n^2kh\bar{o}$, she does not laugh. Of $m\bar{a}$ is used in conditional and interrogative sentences.

As already said, the prohibitive particle is $\&p\bar{\imath}$.

Interrogative force is given by putting $cos k\bar{e}$ at the end of the sentence. This particle is only used when there are no other interrogative words in the sentence.

ORDER OF WORDS.

As in other modern Siamese-Chinese languages, the order of words in a sentence is of great importance.

The adjective follows the noun it qualifies, and the genitive the noun on which it is dependent. In a relative sentence the demonstrative pronoun of the antecedent may be put either at the beginning or end of the sentence.

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The usual order of words in a simple sentence is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. In an interrogative sentence the indirect precedes the direct object.

The above is a very incomplete sketch of Khāmtī grammar, and it is presumed, when writing it, that the reader has also perused the general introduction to the Tai group, and the section dealing with Āhom. For further information regarding Khāmtī, reference should be made to Mr. Needham's grammar, which has full examples, and contains much that is omitted here.

I am indebted to Mr. Needham for the two following specimens of Khāmtī. The spelling of the transliteration has been altered to agree with the system adopted for this survey. The spelling of words containing vowels with several sounds is that of the pronunciation.

[No. 4.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

KHĀMTI.

SPECIMEN 1.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1896.)

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

5.

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

KHAMTI.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSCRIPTION AND TRANSLATION.

Note.—As every written vowel in Khāmtī represents several sounds, and is also liable to modification before a final consonant, no attempt has been made to give a letter for letter transliteration, which would be of very little use. Instead, a phonetic transcription has been given, showing the actual pronunciation of each vowel. In this transcription o represents the sound of o in 'often,' and a, that of a in 'all.' In the diphthong ail, both vowels are heard.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1896.) (DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)					
Mü-nan kön kö-lüng ¹ Formerly man's a	yang lük-chai were sons	shâng-kō. <i>two</i> .	Naü l ü k Amongst ohildren		
man shang-ko nai ² lūk-ch his the-two aforesaid child (or s		_	nai wā-kā, 'khüng to said, '(of)-goods		
	hāla ü-ū-k o r (there-be)	pan-haü-tā.' divide-give.'	Mü-nai man Then he		
lūk-chai man mai khüng son his to (his)-property	pan-haü-kā. l y distributed.		- C		
nai mā-hüng-yang-shī mü the not-long-having-tarried cou		mai k ā- k	U		
mai man khüng tāng-mi in he property all (hi			lü khüng man ter property his		
tāng-müng mōt-kā-nai mü-na all getting-rid-of then	•	n mai üp E in famine	-khau long.* (occurred) a-mighty.		
Man-an-tī-kin-mā-yang-kā. ⁵ He-had-nothing-to-eat.	Mü-nai ma		g mai k ā to vent		

¹ Kō is a numeral particle used for human beings.
2 Nai is a demonstrative pronoun used here for emphasis and recognition.

Ling or long is an adverb meaning very, exceedingly; so that kai-lung = very far.

^{*} Khai = lose. kin = eat, mot = finish.

^{&#}x27; Man an ti-kin mā yang-kā, his what to-eat not was.

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10 . je ve inger juder je verige ingen de gran. Les en Wy wing ent afege was entage. plaser griege parien par de man griege besige proserve

Men de jours "iours prope de régolig 15. Avié दी की की को की किया की किया की की की nagler greender de Eiste ide judoler gren Leng vorz ogere en mang. en magen en jeg Luggyhre de geben men de geben greg men em seis jeg ndjege-ut. Ling sking 50 .902 ob enhog et grossiet misstrig gog кнамті. 153

pång-phō-kā kon-ran man-mai tōng-nā mai poi-kā haŭ-leng¹ (and)-joined-(himself) (and-)man-the him fields into sent to-tend

10. mū. Man-mai² khüng-kin phaŭ-ko mā-haŭ. Shang nai kā-cham ham pigs. Him-to eatables any-one not-gave. If obtained (he)-could-have husks mū-ko

of-the-pigs-also

ebaü-kum mā-nai man wā, tī kin. Мü man man When his-senses recovered said, he would-have eaten. he

pō-lü khā-nai khau mü-kin 'hün kau \mathbf{m} ai рō have-enough foodto-eat father's slaves-the even 'house ny

khün-nang-kau pün-mai ko haü. Kau-cham mā-nai-kin-shī³
and others-to even to-give. I not-getting-food
nang-tī-tai.
(am)-like-to-die.

"pō-ü, Chauphrā-mai* kā-shī wā kât, kau Kau рō kau mai God'father, I I will, father togoingsaymy

15. tai-khāng⁵ maü-mai⁴ phit-yau, khün-nang-kau lük-chai nī ma**ū** against (and)-yourself have-sinned, and son good your

nai-shī mā-thōk-wā; kau-mai khā nā-kan-shī au-wai-tā."'

to-be I-(am)-not-fit; me (of-your)-slaves as take."'

Pō man-mai mā-kā. man tai-khāng mai рō manMü-nai man Father. himhiswent. hisfather toThen henear

lūk tī-kai-pūn han-kā han-kā, khün-nang-kau lenfrom afar saw pitied-(him), and

kā-shī khō man mai wām-shī chūp-kem-kā. Mü-nai lūk-chai ruuning neck his upon (and)-falling kissed-(him). Then son

20. man wā, 'pō-ü, kau Chauphrā-mai khün-nang-kau kā-nā⁶ maü-mai phit his said, 'father, I God and against yourself sinned

¹ Haü is an auxiliary causal imperative, haü-leng, to tend.

² Man-mai khung-kin phau-ko mā-hau means, literally, any one even gave to him not things to eat.

³ $M\bar{a}$ -nai-sh \bar{i} = not getting; $m\bar{a}$ = not; nai-sh \bar{i} = getting; sh \bar{i} is the past participle suffix.

⁴ Mai is simply the accusative case suffix.

Tai-khāng means, literally, 'near, adjacent to.'
 Kā-nā = 'before.' in the presence of.' The mai after Chauphrā and maü is the accusative case suffix.

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het-kā. Kau-mai lūk-chai nī-nai-shī n'thök-wā.' Tō-nai-ū-ko рō have. I-(am)good-to-be unfit.' Butfather

man khā-man-khau-mai² ākhāng haü-kā, hishis-slaves (thus) order gave,

ʻlūk kau-mai au-mā-shi phā an-kheñ-nī au-nung-tā; e son my-to having-brought robe which-most-good put-(it)-on(him);

läkchâp mü-man maishūp•tā,3 khün-nang-kau anmai khep-tin finger-his (his)-feet shoes upona-ring put, and upon

25. shūp-haü-tā³; khün-nang-kau châm-kan-shi5 kin-kât. tü⁴ Lük kau and being-merry-together let-eat. Son myplace; uslai-pü-nai

khün-nang-kau nai-mā.' nang-ti-tai, hai-kā, ngai khün-nang-kau pâk-mā; (he)-returned-has; (he)-lost-was, and got-was. (was)like-to-die, now and

châm-kan-kā. n'khā6 lūk Khun-nang-kau рō made-merry-together. father andAndson

Man lük-chai ũ8 tong-na-mai. Mü-nai lõng man Ħе At-that-time the-elder he in-the-field. son

khün-nang-kau Μü tī-thüng hün-mai kā-nai hün mai mü-mā. andthe-house returned. (And)-when neuring the-house dancing to

nai-hin-shi, mü-nai man khā-hün-man-30. sheng-kang-sheng-sham servant-of-house-his-(he-)hearing, then he music

pen-hü?' Mü-nai khā-nai kō-lüng-mai9 hâng-shī thām-kā, ' hün hau \mathbf{mai} slave-the matter-what?' Then atcalling asked, 'house our a

Lai-pü-nai-shi man-mai lau-kā, 'nâng chai maü hün-mai mü-mā. Consequently your returned. told, 'younger-brother home him

¹ Phit-het = make sin.

^{*} Khd-khau-mai = slaves; khau is the plural suffix; mai accusative case suffix.

^{*} $Sh\bar{u}p$ only means to put on certain things.

This $t\bar{u}=us$ (excluding the person addressed), and belongs to $kin-k\hat{a}t=1$ et eat, $t\bar{u}-kin\cdot k\hat{a}t=1$ et us eat.

⁵ Kan is a reciprocal particle; châm-kan-shī = making merry together.

⁶ N'khā is a pronoun meaning both, and is used in speaking of two persons.

^{&#}x27; Châm $k\bar{a}=$ made merry, kan (reciprocal particle) = together.

³ U is the substantive verb meaning here 'was.' In Khāmtī bare roots of verbs are often used to express past action.

[•] $K\delta$ -lüng-mai belongs to $kh\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{o}$ -lüng-mai = a slave, mai is simply the accusative case suffix.

(0) : 3 - Diges " 436 60 - 3 200 - 3 00 - 3 00 - 3 00 - 3 00 - 3 00 - 3 "Im de frieze bedu Biergey being od mi. Majorgen i son en isozog pled "entongo of whole out ed egge jengen it i far din oorde lije progent As it af " early outen it af af gen en en mensez antez yeur viegeen de yvez zoolog gentagen zoolot g 40 यह अध्या है और कर्नि निर्देश के कि के कि कि कि कि कि कि कि कि कि या मुहंद्र ते भी क्वांप्येलकं स्मिन्ट कार्य मीट्ये में पि "मुहं दे अला अव्हरना निर्मा क्षेत्र कार्म निर्मा क्षेत्र कार्म निर्मा

КНАМТІ. 157

maŭ man-mai châm-shī nai-kā.' maŭ leng-poi nam, lai-pü рō рõ received. father your feasting is, because father your himsafely Mü-nai Then

man khā-chā khūn-nang-kau kā naü hūn-mai mā-kā. he angered and go inside the-house not-would.

35. Lai-pü-nai pō man mā-shī lau-shī man-mai hâng-kā.

Wherefore father his coming (and)-persuading him called.

Lūk-chai lõng man põ man mai wā-kā, 'po-ü, maü khā-chaü-tā
The-son elder his father his to said, 'father, you consider

kau kī-pī-kai² maü-mai het-ā-mū haü-nai, khün-nang-kau mā-laü-ko *I how-many-years you-to work (am-I)-giving, and ever*

kau khâm-maü thâm; tō-nai-ū-ko maŭ kau-mai pē-yā-ân ā-lüng I-have (to)-command-your listened; yet you me-to goat-child a

nai-ko tāng tai-ko hōm kin peō-tā-nai-shī mā-haü. Tō-wā ngai even with friends together to-eat (and)-make-merry never-gave. Yet now

4() lūk-chai ân maü khung tāng-mung khai-kin-mot-shī thung-mā, lai-pu-nai-shī son younger your property everything having-wasted returned, therefore

рō lēng-poi.' Mü-nai man wā-kā, maü \mathbf{mai} man kau-ü, feast-(him).' Then humfather said, · his' son you my,

maŭ tāng kau hōm-ū; nai-shī khüng kau kā-yāng-nai³ you with me together-are; therefore property my whole

thök-châm lā-khâng-maü. Ngai-hau kan khün-nang-kau (is)-yours. It-is-meet (that) (we-) make-merry together andlēng-poi. Lai-pü nâng younger-brother feast. For

maŭ tai-kā, khun-nang-kau nip-mä; hai-kā, khun-nang-kau nai-mā.'
your died and is-alive-again; (he)-was-lost, and got-was.'

 $K\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ = literally, did not go.

² Kai is an interrogative particle expressing uncertainty.

 $^{^3}$ $K\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}ng$ -nai = whole; $l\bar{a}$ - $kh\hat{a}ng$ -mai = your own; $kh\hat{a}ng$ and $l\bar{a}$ - $kh\hat{a}ng$ are particles denoting ownership.

[No. 5.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

KHĀMTĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1899.)

En maj में न्यां है भीकी अभी है men en me de le jose un maisere अर्थ त्या है के अर्थ का है जे जे जे con & (2 herd vo en evo vo 2 5. Den ad en end mi a mi an m Be ni aut con by eur note, be se any of who we mis i do so i i war b m song oon at (n° n° om 2)

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

KHAMTĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

TRANSCRIPTION1 AND TRANSLATION.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1899.)

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

Trā ān-nai phet. Kau hün man-mai Case this false. I house his

kā-shang-ko lāk-kât nai-shī mau-kā. An-chau anything steal to not-went. True

man ān-nai. An-nā pī-lüng-pūn lūk act this. Ago year-one-past from

Thōniram² shū-shī au-mā ngō-me kau-nai $Dhanir\bar{a}m$ buying brought cow my

5. hai-kā-nai. Ngō-me shang-wā kau kyeō-kyā-shī missed. The-cow although I carefully

leng-ū-ko tō-nai-ko hün kau-chau kept nevertheless house former

man-mai kāp-kāp kā-shī-ū. Nang-kau owner's often went. And

kau lai-wan kau man-mai kā pī-au. I several-times I her went fetched.

Thōniram khâm-wan lau-ā-nai Dhanirām the-day referred-to

¹ See note preceding last specimen.

² There is no dh in Khāmtī, so th is used instead.

यस् ल्या त्य ये ये प्राप्त भी भीकी असी है ખિં ૦૪૦ 3 √2 do 3 की अध्ये आ अध्ये की की ला wit on it was you 15. लक् की प्रकी थेकी है अपूर्ण भी सहरू कि अर्थ अर्थि al endoy ye go & ge gen jege teur go je g. 3 कि री राण भी ल 2 4 en ra ra कर्र 3 20. A

10. wan-nan ngō-mē kau-nai kā-ū kai day-that cow my has-gone or

mau-kā hün man-mai kau kā not-gone house his I went

pī-lem. Mü-nai kang-wan tōk-kā. to-see. At-that-time sun fell.

Kau ân-nā-kan-lang kau kā ngō-mē I as-usual I went the-cow

kau-nai yang-ū-kai nai-shī, my was-or-not thinking,

15. kan-nau shân man-mai kā. Ākhyik through compound his went. At

nan-mai nâng-shau man chü that-time sister her name

Mālōtī ship-pet pī pā-shau Mālatī eighteen years grown-up-girl

mü-mai nam-tau alüng au-shī hand-in water-pot one bringing

shân-mai mā. Mü-nai nap-shing kā. compound-to came. Then dark came.

20. Kau man-mai mā khaü-chaü-shī

I her not noticing

¥

कर्म है ल भी भी भी भी भर्म ी भी भी जर्म ल न्द्रि भी भूगी क्या अंधु कि व्या wigin of of 2 23 के ती त्या व्यावर्शकी की no m and of the on प्र भी के किया में भी पर्य अर के अर कि જારે જમ્ 188 ng 1889 30 or vi of ore mil & mojor of of

kau man-mai kā-shī-ū. Mü-nai man I her-to went. Then she

kau-mai kītik kan-kā kau-mai, me suddenly saw me,

khā-tau phü-shī man kō-shī thought ghost she being-afraid

iu-kā. Thōniram tang-kân hün screamed. Dhanirām men house

25. man khau¹ âk-mā-shī, kau tai of ... ont-came, I to-the

pā-shau-mai mā an-nai-shī kau-mai girl came saying me

mā shew-kā. Thōniram khang-nā came seized. Dhanirām before

polish-mai-kō khâm pün-nai lau-kā; the-police story other-this told;

khē-tō kan-nang-mai khā-au-shau but afterwards to-hide

30. tang-ai nâng-shau man-shī shame sister his

tī-chē-yang-mai phet shī-wā. to-court false said. So say 3 was an A so of

кнамті. 165

kau mā-lāk mak-māng man, *I came-to-steal mangoes his*,

nang-kau Mālōtī shang-ko kau-mai and Mālatī at-first me

nü tön-mai han-kā nai-shī-wā. up tree saw said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This case is false. I did not go to steal anything at his house. The facts are these. I missed my cow which I had bought from Dhanirām a year ago. The cow though carefully kept by me used to visit her former owner's house very often, and I had to go and fetch her several times. On the day referred to by Dhanirām I went to his house to see if my cow had gone there. That was after sunset. I walked through his compound as usual to see whether my cow was straying there. It so happened that at that time his sister Mālatī, a grown-up girl of 18 years, came to the compound with a water-pot in her hand. It was then nearly dark. She saw me unexpectedly going towards her, though I myself had not noticed her. She got frightened and screamed as if she thought I was a ghost. The people of the house, including Dhanirām, came and seized me, saying that I had come there to visit the girl. That was the story Dhanirām told to the Police, but in the Court, in order to hide the shame of his sister, he gives out that I was stealing his mangoes and that Mālatī saw me first on the tree.

TAIRONG.

The Tairongs (or great Tais) who are also called Turung or Shām (i.e. Shān) Turung, inhabit the west centre of the Sibsagar District of Assam. The circumstances under which they became enslaved to the Kachins, and learned to speak the language of their masters, have been described in the General Introduction to the group. About 150 of them are said to speak their own language, which, according to the specimen, is nearly the same as Khāmtī. The following account of the principal points of difference between Tairong and Khāmtī is based on the specimens and List of Words. As explained below, the specimens were obtained with difficulty, and are not very trustworthy.

Alphabet.—This is the same as Khāmtī, though a few curious forms appear. We may note \bigcirc for ra (in Aitoniā, this is almost the sign for ha), and as usual a special form for the vocative particle \bigcirc , transliterated $\widehat{e}i$. The letter \bigcirc is pronounced ya, as in Khāmtī, not ja, as in Āhom and Norā. When compounded with another consonant ya is pronounced e. Thus \bigcirc kyang, in 1. 5, is transliterated keng, and \bigcirc kyap, in line 20, is transliterated kep.

As in Khāmtī and Norā hit, to do, is always written 98 + 58 hich, or even 90 + 508 hach. The word for 'with' is written 988 nüy, corresponding to the 888 lüy of Norā.

The letter \circ wa is over and over again added to another consonant without any apparent reason. Thus we have the word for 'servant' written both o_l $kh\bar{a}$ (e.g. l. 11), and g_l $khw\bar{a}$ (l. 19). Again in line 19, $kh\bar{o}$ is written o_l $hw\bar{o}$. For other examples see the pronouns below. This is probably an idiosyncracy of the writer.

The letter ∞ is always transliterated fa, and never pha. Similarly ∞ is always sa, and never sha. Whether these transliterations represent actual pronunciations, I cannot say.

The use of the vowels in the specimen is very capricious. Thus the word for 'property' is spelt khüng in 1.31, and kháng in 1.32. Similarly the word for 'he' is spelt man, mwān, mün, and mwun as mentioned below. The word for 'do' is both hich (hit) and hach (hat).

Tones.—I regret that I can give no information on this subject.

Nouns,—Number.—The plural is formed by suffixing khau, or nouns of multitude may be prefixed. Thus $fung \ m\bar{e}-m\bar{a}$, bitches, literally a collection of bitches; $muk \ khau$, they, literally a collection of them.

Case.—Hāng and $t\bar{\imath}$ are both used as prefixes for the Dative. Hāng is also used for the Accusative, as in hāng man . . . fuk-lā, bind . . . him. Kā-tī is used for the Ablative, as in Shān. Thus au kā-tī man, take from him. Luk is also common, and in No. 118 of the List of Words we have lai for this case. O is sometimes prefixed to luk (cf. Nos. 104, 113, 122), as \bar{u} is prefixed in Aitoniā.

The suffix ko appears to be used with the nominative, as in Nos. 212, 214, and 215 of the List. This suffix is regular in Ahom and Aitoniā. When it appears in the specimen it seems to have the meaning of 'also,' as in Khāmtī.

168 TAI GROUP.

The word $s\bar{a}$ may apparently be prefixed to the Genitive and Dative, see Nos. 117, 125, and 126 in the List of Words. We may note that sq or se suffixed seems to form an oblique case in Aitoniā.

Adjectives call for no special remarks. The method of forming comparison is not clear from the specimens. We may note however the two following examples in the List of Words; nü-sī song, higher (No. 136), and náng-chai man nü pī-sau-nai song, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—These are only remarkable for the eccentric spellings of the pronoun of the third person. Beside man, we have $mw\bar{a}n$ (lines 1, 3, 19, 20); $m\ddot{u}n$ (6, 9, 11, 25, 26), mwun (7) and mun (No. 23, of List). The reflexive pronoun is $p\bar{a}$ -chau.

Verbs.—In the list of words (Nos. 179 and ff.) the various persons have different suffixes. This difference is, however, not, I should say, one of person, but of the way of saying the same thing. Thus yo which is usually added to the third person (but also to the first) is evidently an assertive suffix like the Shān ho. The only suffix about which I am in doubt is $l\bar{a}$, which appears to be optionally added to the second person of any tense, and is also the suffix of the Imperative.

The Past suffix is as in Khāmtī, $k\bar{a}$ or yau. In the List of Words nai is also sometimes added without altering the meaning.

The Future prefix is $t\bar{\imath}$, as in Khāmtī. The suffix of the Imperative is $t\bar{\alpha}$ and also (in the List) $l\bar{\alpha}$ (Nos. 234, 236, 237, 238).

The Participial suffix is sī as in Khāmtī.

There are several forms of the Negative. The Khāmtī \mathfrak{SS} \ddot{u} , pronounced n', appears in line 3, in \mathfrak{SS} (probably a mistake for \mathfrak{SS} 0') n'pai, not many. $M\ddot{a}$ (l. 10) and mau (l. 28) also occur. In lines 14 and 18 $t\ddot{a}$ -pin is translated 'am not.'

The Assertive suffix ho of Shān appears as yo. I have already referred to its use in the List of Words. In the specimen it occurs in line 10, $m\bar{a}$ haü-yo, did not give. Similar appears to be the use of the suffix $n\bar{o}$ (lines 16 and 17), also written $nw\bar{o}$, which in Shan is an assertive particle soliciting acquiescence.

TAIRONG. 169

The following specimen was obtained with some difficulty, as the number of persons who know the language is very small.

The interlinear translation is far from literal. In the original as received by me only the general meaning of each phrase was given. This, so far as possible, I have ventured to correct with the aid of versions in cognate languages. As here given, it is not nearly as literal as I would wish, but I do not dare to venture beyond certainty, and there are many points which are doubtful to me, and which I have left untouched.

[No. 6.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

TAIRONG.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

nervolet mentenner mendenser bergeren oben entl Med mennen en nzormsonett er en geren orarez ender seelne estern bergeren oben obererg

มในมาติ มาแมนด เมนานา มาใจกานดี องอุบาโอ มันกา 5. พาดโอเน จามอาเมอง องอุบาโอเมียามาแนกเมือง เมนามา อาเมอง อบาโอ สอมมา อุโอนานา ของมามาใจเหือ องเมนามา อนายนม อนานอนาม อองมานา มีหายนที่ องคุณของ อนายนม อนานอนาม อองมานา มีหายนที่ องคุณของ อนามาแม้ อนามาแม้ เมนาบามาใช้ มามาใช้ เมนาบามาของมายนที่

begardigende ogerverder ormernomit nyverland

5.

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

TAIRONG.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

sâng fū-lüng luk. Luk-mwān koi-nai wā-kā, 'pō Kun yang said, 'father Man hadSon-his younger one sons. Tī-nan khā-laü tī-fât-kwō häng-kau haŭ-mā.' khüng maü ok-chā On-that how-much portion to-me give.' goodsyourproperty khüng-nai hāng-khau meng-haü-yāu. Mü pō-mwān khâng-pā-chau Time not-many divided.father-his property-of-himself goods-the to-them hüng-nai days-after tang-lung hâm-sī khün-kau khüng-pā-chau luk-chai ân-nai having-collected allandson younger-the goods-his-own $Ok\text{-}ch\bar{a}$ kā tāng-lung au-sum-kā-yau. müng-kai, hit-keng-yok-sī wasted.Property a-country-far, with-riotous-living allwent Tī-nan mut•sī fān-üp-yau. mün tāng-lung müng nan hisallfamine-occurred. From-that having-spent country that Thät-nan mwun-ko tī-müng-nan man-ko tuk-fan-yau. of-country-that For-that hehe-also began-to-be-in-want. kun-hün $m\bar{u}$ nan tī-chau-hün-lüng Haü-ling kā-sau-nüy. thatperson-of-house to-owner-of-house-one went-joined-with. To-tend swinepā-chau tī-nā to-fields own tī-kin-chāk ${
m m} {
m ilde u}$ häng·man poi-haü-yau. Tī-nan mün On-that with-food-husks of-swine himsent. he hit-pyo-chī fain(?make-pleasure-how-many)

10. ny oge enjo enngem preven nomfongeren " निया हिल्ली क्षेत्रधीय लामें यो का का हिल्ली के हिल्ल कुला montom erloerer ulerding degnod den men marchen gezaug entl arcus mar alorses e and elo estratas es rocales en mulos d'unes es este 15. Entrednegel mannazeles esemes is many werd les the last mentaces de cola moure engleen ugegele Borestern, noles esoesterres vilumers Almeral vologez alogisterino alogun valorionarina

10. saŭ tâng yau pā-chau-ko; hāng-man faŭ-chau mā-haŭ-yo.
fill: belly did his-own-also; to-him any-one not-gave-indeed.

Tū-khā-sang-rē-nwō mün wā-kā, 'Pō-kau khā-kin-ngün khaŭ-laŭ-lüng After-great-suffering he said, 'Father-my servants-eating-rupees how-many yang nai-kin, have bread

im·sī-ko nü-nai-nam, khün-kau kau tâng·mai-sī tai. Kau luk-sī enough-being-also tɔ-spare(?), and I belly-fire-being die. I having-arisen

kā-tī-pō-sī khâm nai tī-lau, "pō ēi, tang-fan chāt-mū-nan having-gone-to-my-father word this will-say, "father O, (I) sinned against-heaven

pin-sī mü-maü hān-nai-hit ngā-rai'-yau; kā-chü-tī-wā luk-chai-nai tā-pi(n) being to-you sight-doing sinned; name-to-be-called son-the not-am

15 khō-sang mā-yang-hwō. Khā maü khā-kin-ngün nang-kan any-more worthy. Servant your servant-eating-rupees like

Ū luk-sī kai-nō hit-tā." Khün-kau kā-sū man рō. Was far-indeed make." Andhaving-arisen came (to-his)-father. hān-sī pō·man having-seen father-his

ī-nū-nō; len-pai-nwō; kât-khwō-man-sī chum-kem. Mü-nang-nan felt-pity-indeed; ran-indeed; fallen-neck-his-having kissed. Then luk-chai-nai son-the

hān-nai-hit lai-pü kaum-nai mü-maü ngā-rai-kā; wā-kā, ' pō ēi, before sinned; 0, on-account-of ill-luck to-you said, ' father lai-pü-nai tā-pin luk-chai on-account-of-this not-am son

. ngā-rai is literally 'hell.'

Munetal Wasdener destallens Soulen en sule

พื้อสายสารา ภาพาทายล สาร อานามสาใสาในกล้า นากลล สา คาใจปีเสมโมโสา

พรา อาราธิราท พิยพิยพิยพ พาพาพาขย พองารครารอสามอยา ชายาพ

25. ออกเลื วิลาคริยาขย อริลาลิว พฤตัลา ภออากา จายชยากอากา พลา

สรีครูโสรพอ พริศิธสร เอโดสราเมินสวาเมินสวาเล โรยเกโนมาสร อเมียวเกิดมาเป็ก อาหาสร

khwō-sang hwō.' Khün-kau pō-nai hāng-khwā-mwān-khau lau-kā-lē, any-more worthy.' And father-the to-servants-his said, 'mē-sī-khüng-'best-robe

20. -nī au-sī, hāng-mwān au-nung-haŭ-twā; tī-mü lak-châp, tī-tin khep-having-brought, to-him put-on; on-finger ring, on-feet shoes

-tin haü-tā; khün-kau hau kin-sī, hit-pyō-kât. Lai-sang luk kau give; and we having-eaten, be-merry. Because son my

an-pin-tai-sī, nip-mā sī-u; hai-sī, nai-kā.' Tī-nan khau although-having-died, is-alive again; having-been-lost, was-found.' Then they tā-hit-pyō-kât-nai.

began-to-rejoice.

Mü-nang-nan luk-chai lung man hit-ü-mū-nā-sī-ū ka-lāng man mā thüng Time-at-that son great his having-left-his-field afterwards he came near nā-hün-to-the-

-kā-nai; ma-nai-ngin-kā sing-kâng-sing-yam kā-kī-sā-fang. Mü-nang-nan man house; he-heard music dancing. Then he hâng-kā khā-lüng-sī, called servant-one,

25. thām-kā-lē, 'khâm nai lai-pü-sang'? Tī-nan khā-mün-khau lau-kā, 'nâng asked, 'words these on-account-of-what'? Then his-servants said, 'brother maü pâk-mā-kā, khün-your back-come-did, and

khem-sā-sī-mā-nai hit-kā hān-kā poi-lung Tī-nan pō-maü -kau (him)-safe-and-sound make feast-great did , Then 8 au father-your mün hit-chā-sī-lē mau-khau-: wouldhe being-angry

pō-man âk-nâk-si luk-chai-nai Lai-pü-nai hāng -naü-hün-yau. father-his hoving-come-out son-the ${\it -not-enter-the-house}.$ Therefore toân-yân-kā-yau. Ti-nan Then entreated.

ลงานเคลงอยู่และเลย ขายนา ขายนายนาย และเลย และเลย เลยเลย ขายนายนายลาย

duesed underwoodeestenho érvocallabor ergangen néadmermeren an

30. Auf Delovasonas n'esmoy pronon mérasorécomocom

nlegasnimers aloasersas varonn mingel

कार्यकालाक निर्मा विकास के विकास के कार्य कार कार्य का

TAIRONG. 177

kau-khā-pi-lüng-kü-kyā man häng pō-nai thing-kā-wā-kā, 'nū-tā, 'lo, 1-how-many-years tofather-the answered-said, hekhâm-maü-chau mau-khâtmü-laü-sī ko (for kau) lung-lā-sī-ū, I order-thy not-disobeyed, serve, ever

-mau-khan-yau, lai-khün-kau tang tai-kō-khau hit-pyō-kât nai-sī-ko ping-ñā
nevertheless with friends to-be-merry even goat
ân-an-lüng māyoung-one-a (you)-did-not-

30. -haŭ-yau. Lai-pŭ man mā-nai-sī hit-poi-hit-lam-kā, kun-nan tang -give. But he coming-even-on made-a-feast, who with mē-chang-kā harlots

khung man cham-kā-yau.' Mu-nang-nan man wā-kā, 'luk-kau-ēi, property his wasted.' At-that-time he said, 'son-my,

khüng-kau-yang-sang-sī-ko tī-kau-nam, khün-kân ū kā-chū maü all-I-have-also with-me, andareever you khang-mau-nai-nam; khun-kau nâng maü tai-sī. having-died, andbrotheryour yours;

nip-mā-nang-kan; hai-sī, nai-nang-kan-yau; lai-pü-nai hau has-lived; having-been-lost, is-found; therefore us hit-pyō-kan-mwān-kan nī-yau.'
rejoicing-being-merry was-good.'

NORĀ.

The Norās are only found in the Sibsagar District of Assam. It is roughly estimated that there are, in all, about three hundred of them. All that I know about them will be found in the general introduction to this group, on pp. 64 and ff. ante.

The Norā language is undoubtedly akin to Khāmtī, but is not exactly the same as it. It possesses more points in common with the Northern Shān of Burma, and has also a greater number of Burmese loan-words. The alphabet used is the same as that of Khāmtī, and hence differs from that of Burmese Shān.

I am indebted to the kindness of the Deputy Commissioner of Sibsagar for the annexed specimens of Norā, consisting of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and of some riddles. They present few difficulties to any one who has studied the preceding Khāmtī specimens. It may be noted how very strictly the rules regarding the order of the words are followed. The following are the main points in which the language of the specimens differs from that of Khāmtī.

In the first place Norā possesses the vowel $\infty \approx a$, which exists in Āhom, Aitoniā, and Shān, but not, apparently, in Khāmtī. It is sometimes interchanged with $\infty \mid \bar{a}$. Thus the word for 'servant' is written both $\infty \approx kha$ and $\infty \mid kh\bar{a}$.

The sign \approx also appears as a sort of contraction. Thus $\approx 9\%$ lim (pronounced liny), with, is written $\approx 9\%$. In the first line of the specimen nai, get, is written $\approx 9\%$; why, I do not know, unless \approx indicates a tone. In that case, I cannot say what tone it represents. In Khāmtī nai has the 'emphatic' tone. In Shān, the corresponding word, lai, has the 'straightforward' tone. It is possibly a sign indicating the repetition of the word. In Shān the corresponding sign, $\approx 9\%$, indicates the 'emphatic' tone.

As usual in these Tai languages, the vocative particle is written in a peculiar way. In Norā it is written %, and is pronounced hai.

The letter \bigcirc is sometimes ba, but more usually wa.

The letter \circ is, according to the transliteration, sometimes pronounced sha, and sometimes sa.

The word meaning 'to do' is written 95.56 hich, as in Khāmtī. In Khāmtī it is pronounced het, and in Norā hēt.

The letter ∞ is transliterated pha in Khāmtī and fa in Norā. This apparently indicates a real difference of pronunciation, as in Khāmtī ph represents an aspirated p.

I may note that the very common word for 'to go' is $kw\bar{a}$, as in Shān, and not $k\bar{a}$, as in Khāmtī.

In a compound word, when the last consonant of one member is the same as that of the first member of the next, the consonant is usually written only once. Thus $kh\ddot{u}n$ - $n\ddot{a}ng$ -kau, and, is always written $kh\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}ng$ -kau. Similarly when the imperative particle only $t\ddot{a}$ is added to the root $s \approx hich$, pronounced $h\bar{e}t$, we have $s \approx h\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ for $h\bar{e}t$ - $t\bar{a}$.

In regard to **Substantives**, the suffix mai is regularly used to make a kind of oblique form when a noun is governed by a preposition. Thus hāng luk-khā nā-khau mai, to the servants; tī Frā-mai, to (i.e. against) God; khāng-nā maü-chau-mai, before thee.

The Dative case is formed by prefixing 98 hang or $\infty \text{ hang}$ (as in Shan). Thus hang luk-kha na-khau mai, to the servants; $k\bar{a}$ kau, to me. Hang is sometimes used for the accusative as in 8900 per 98 so po-ta hang man, beat him. The dative is also formed by prefixing $t\bar{i}$ as in Khamti.

The Genitive usually, as in Khāmtī, simply follows the governing noun, without any suffix or prefix. Sometimes, however, the relative pronoun $\bar{a}n$ is idiomatically prefixed. Thus $\bar{a}n$ $p\bar{o}$ $kh\phi$, the slave of the father, literally, 'who of the father (is) the slave'. Sometimes mai is suffixed, as in $\bar{a}n$ $p\bar{o}$ kau-mai $kh\phi$, the slaves of my father, lit. 'who of father of me (are) the slaves'.

The Ablative has the usual forms. We have also $luk-t\bar{\imath}$ in phrases like $luk-t\bar{\imath}$ man, from him; $luk-t\bar{\imath}$ nam- $m\bar{o}$, from the well. Compare Shān $kh\bar{a}-t\bar{\imath}$. $T\bar{\imath}-mai$ is also common, as in $t\bar{\imath}$ luk-chau khau mai, from daughters.

To form the Plural, na-khau is used as well as khau. Thus we have hang luk-kha na-khau mai, to the servants.

In the case of **Adjectives**, the participal suffix se (Khāmtī $sh\bar{\imath}$) is frequently added. Thus $t\bar{a}ng$ -lung-se, all; kai-se, far.

As regards **Pronouns**, the respectful suffix *chau* occurs constantly in the specimens. We have $ma\ddot{u}$ -chau, you; man-chau, he; khau-chau, they. The use of the relative pronoun $\ddot{a}n$ is also very common. The demonstrative pronouns are written $\infty \approx 5^{\circ}$ \dot{a} -nai and $\approx 5 \approx 5^{\circ}$ \dot{a} -nan.

In **Verbs**, the past tense is frequently formed by $kw\bar{a}$ -jau (literally has gone), instead of the Khāmtī $k\bar{a}$ -yau used for the perfect. Compare the English idiom 'went and did such and such'. Sometimes (e.g. I. 7) we have $kw\bar{a}$ -se-jau, se, in this case being used as $sh\bar{s}$ is used in Ahom.

For the future both the Khāmtī $t\bar{\imath}$ and the Shān tak are used. Thus, $t\bar{\imath}-k\bar{a}-w\bar{a}$, will say; tak nai-nai, will be given. Ta (for tak) is also used, as in ∞ \approx tak tak tak tak nai-nai, will be given. Ta (for tak) is also used, as in ∞ \approx tak tak

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An instance of the infinitive of purpose is $k\bar{a}$ -pai (I, 6), to feed, a pure dative. The participal suffix $sh\bar{\imath}$ of Khamti becomes se in Norā. Examples passim.

The negative is ma, and also (I, 10) mau.

The assertive word cyl ho is often added to the end of a sentence as in Shān.

In I, 8, we have a quotation introduced by the word $w\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$, just as is done in Shān.

[No. 7.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY

TAI GROUP.

NORĀ.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN 1.

o was eil of us where where is other or all so that a salve of the one of aposts of apost which we want ત્રિકાલ્ટ્રી » ન્હી અઝઝઝ ટ્ર ભાને ઝ૭ ૧૭ : ન નિ દાત્ર કર્ત છે. આ " ન્હી અઝઝઝ અંધો દ્વી બિયા માટે અઝઝ १७२३)) भी देन्द्र कर त्यु ट कर त्यु भी भी दर्य कर कर के कि कि के कि के कि के कि के कि के कि के कि ေက်င် နှစ်တင်က (အနိက်ရှိကု ကုမျှစ်။ ငြနစ်မာနှစ်တင် ကုင် နှာ့ ငေ က် ။ မေါင်နာနှစ် ဟာ မြင်လှင် ကုမျှမျှစ်။ 5. "เอ เลือง ลอ ลอ ลอ ออการ ออการ และ เลือง ออการ เลือง ออการ เลือง เลือง เลือง เลือง เลือง เลือง เลือง เลือง อ अव भी भू हिन्दू में एवं में के के विकार के के विकार के में पूर्ण के के विकार में पूर्ण के किया में की मा कार के ขางวัจสิ ณ ครองๆยือควา แพ้งอัจอง อา เพางอัยง แลง เพียง อฟุลจั หา้อง เองอา เล็บ เล็บ เลย

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

NORĀ.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Kön kö-lüng luk sång-kō jāng. Luk pạ-ân wā hāng pō, Man person-one sons twohad.Son male-younger said to father, 'pō hai, a-muñ(muy) maü kā kau tak nai-nai `Father"0, your goodstomewillbe-given haü hāng kau.' Khăk-nan рō manā-muy pan-haü-kā. Khăk-nan ū giveme.' Then father hisgoodsdivided. Then waskep lüng luk-chai ân moment one son younger ngün täng-lung-se kwā müng jau, khü(n)-nāng-kau man au kai-se collected rupees entirely go country hisfar did, ū-thān-se hēch (for hēt) $ar{ ext{an}}$ jok remained-there-having donewhat(is)riotous-living se, ngün tāng-lung au-shum-kwā-jau. Ngün man tāng-lung kin-sing-se, having, rupees wasted.Rupees his devoured-having, allmüng nan üp lung kwā-jau. country thatfamine great became. tok-kha-kwa-jau. Khăk-nan Khăk-nan \mathbf{m} an man pang-fo Then he in-want-became. Then heassociatego, kōn ū müng (ān nan) man (whowasof-country that) Khü(n)-nāng-kau man kō-lüng mai jau. kön ā-nan-mai haü kā-paü did. man that (accusative) send to-feed toAndhea mai jau. m \bar{u} ${
m n} {
m ar{a}}$ Khăk-nan chādid.swinefieldinThen eaten ham-kap-nai man khaü-kin im tâng kwā-se-jau. Khăk-nan $m\bar{u}$ (by)-swine huskshewish-to-eat filling belly phaü-ko ān-kiany-one what-to-eat n mā(for ma) haü-kwā-jau. Khak-nan man hō-chaü chün-se lau-kā mind conscious-being notgave. Thenhesaidwā-tī, 'ān рŏ kau mai kha that, of father myof servants lāk-khā-mai kō (for kā), lüm-se khâng-kin ān-nai jang, chü-khün hire(accusative) did, things-to-eat receive muchhave, butkau-sang1 tai tâng-mai. Kau luk-se I-on-the-other-hand die(of)-belly-fire (i.e hunger). \boldsymbol{I} arisen-having

¹ sang, means 'if,' but is used with pronouns as an emphatic particle. So also in Khāmtī.

ભાર લગાના મહાનો .. ન્યુઝાર બહેલુ જાલા લેવા હતી હતા તે તે તે કહ્યું છે. જાય નિવા ન્યુ બહેલું છે છે જ નહા છે છે જ २१९०० । ब्लिस्टिन् विकार के के विकार के के विकार के कि का कि के कि เมลิ อุนิสอุสอุ กาลในสอุนิสอุนาแลง แลง เมลิ แลง เมลิ อุนิสอุนาม การ เมลิ และ เมลิ และ เมลิ และ เมลิ และ เมลิ แ "अन्ती त्य बन बर्ग भी त्य के भी त्य कर्ण में व्यवका । अने त्य कर कर कर विष्ट के होने कर ।।

рō, 10. ta (for tak)-kā-sū khü(n)-nāng-kau tī-kā-wā, "pō hai, kau will-come-to will-say, " father 0, I father, and khāng-nā maüchām Frā-mai māt-se tī mau alsoGod-(oblique) remembered-having before theetonotchau-mai hēch (for hēt) a-prat(pron. apat)1 kwā-jau. Lai-pü-nan haü-pō-wā luk -(oblique) did.Therefore to-be-called son dosinhech (for het)-nang. maü-chau maü-chau tan-jau $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ make-shouldst. worthy-was (that) thou thynotKhā (for kha)-pa-kin lāk-khā pa-lüng nāng-kān kau-mai hē(t)-tā."' Khăk-nan make." Then Servant-persons-eat hire male-one like meman kwā-jau; luk-se kā-sū ōq man father hishe arisen-having reach khăk-nan рō tī-kai-lē; pō hān hāng hān ān-ū man man his sawfather afar; father then hiswhen-he-was sawlen-mā, ī-nū-se, man having-compassion, running, himhai, kau chām tī Frā-mai ' Pō kwā-jau. pan khō. chup kem `Fatheralsotokiss cheek did.0, Ifalling (on)-neck, maü-chau-mai hēch (for hēt) māt-se khāng-nā mau dothee remembered-having *before* nottan-jau.' kwā-jau. Lai-pü-nan haü-pō-wā maü-chau mą luk 15. a-păt worthy-was.' notTherefore thysindid.to-be-called son Khak-nan рō man father his Then tang-lung lüm hāng luk-kha-na-khau-mai wā-kā, 'fā ān ni allgoodmore-than boy-servants-(oblique) said,'robe whattoau-âk-se hāng man aunai him putto this brought-forth-having lāk-châp, khü(n)-nāng-kau mai khü(n)-näng-kau mü mannung-tā; andhand hisring, and -on; shup-tā. tin-mai khăp-tin au taking put-on. shoefeet-on hēch (for hēt)-pyü-tā; hēch(hēt)-sang-lē luk Nåk-se kin-jau-se nan for do-merriment; Besides that eaten-having we ą-nai tai-kā рâkau timethisdiedmy Lai-pü-nan nai-kā.' khün hai-kā, khün nip-mā ; k lung, found-was. Therefore lived; lost-was, again again one(i.e. once), hēch(hēt)-pyü-kwā-jau khau-chau do-merriment-did. they Khak-nan ma-se nā. tī 20. Khak-nan luk-chai lung man ũ Then come-having field. Then son great his was inhün, tai

thüng

arrived (in-)vicinity of-house,

¹ a-prat is a word borrowed from Burmese, and is pronounced a-pyat or a-pat as in Burmese.

25. ผลิตาย์ทลุงอุทธาขายาโกอริเวลา์ยลวัดสิตยายลวัดเลลา์กลุย์ คาย์สูกเทาเพื่อลุ en vent ne valegeerd, ner perfer parés d'a de celegé madent je pét el ceston en ஆ வர்கையக்க வில் வர்களை வக்கு வ 30. » • p • q • q • c q • e s q • v • e q August og enter de la mage og en gelage de se se con contactes de

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```
khăk-nan
    khak-nan man ma-nai-ngin seng
                                         kā
                                                 seng
                                                        kång
                                                                  se-ho,
                               noise of-dancing noise of-music having-indeed, then
      then
              he
                     heard
                                                                    man hâng luk-
                                                                      he
                                                                           call
                                                                                 boy-
                                thām-kā,
                                                                          hēch(hēt)?
                                            'a-nai-khau hēch(hēt)-sang
      -kha
                pa-lüng
                          mai
                                              'these
                                                                            do?
                                 asked,
                                                               why
    -servant
              person-one
                           to
                                          Khăk-nan
                                                             wā-kā
                                                                               wā-ka,
                                                     \mathbf{man}
                                                                      tī-man,
                                              Then
                                                                      to-him,
                                                        he
                                                              said
                                                 pō maü nai-tī;
          'nâng
                    maŭ mā, khū(n)-nāng-kau
                                                                          nâng
                                               father thy received; younger-brother
    'younger-brother thy came,
                                    and
                                         lai-pü-nai
                                                                   hēch(hēt)-poi-jau.
                         maü ū nī:
                                                       рō
                                                            man
                          thy was well; therefore father
                                                            his
                                                                     made-feast-has.'
                                   khaü-chā-se
                                                kān-naü-mai
                                                                ma
                                                                      khaü-kā-se-jau.
      Nai-ngin
                         khâm
                                                    inside-to
                                                                not
                                                                      wish-to-go-did.
                    (these) words
                                  angry-being
    Having-heard
                                                                          mā-tī-thā-
                                             Pü-nai
                                                          рō
                                                                 man
                                            Therefore
                                                         father
                                                                  his
                                                                         come-to-there
25.
                  ū-khyā-kā-jau.
                                          Tī-thān
                                                           man
                                                                   tī
                                                                           рō
                                                                                  man
        n-se
                                                                         father
                                                                                   his
                    entreated.
                                                            he
       having
                                     To-there (thereon)
                                                                   to
                                                                             'lem-nū,
                                                     tān-tâp-se
                                                                    wā-kā,
                                                  answered-having
                                                                     said,
                                                                                ' lo,
                                    hãng
                                            maŭ-chau kau lum (for lung)-(l)ā-se-ū.
                     khün-läng
     khāt-khai
                                              thee
                                                          I
                                                                        serve.
                       to-past
                                     to
    from-before
                                                                   mü-laü-se-ko kau
                                                        maü-chau
                                            A-ming
                                                                                    I
                                           Command
                                                            thy
                                                                      ever-even
                               To-nai-ko
                                             mü-laü-se-ko
                                                             maü-chau
                                                                          hāng
                                                                                   kau
                jā.
    ma
                               Nevertheless
                                                                 thou
                                                                            to
                                                                                   me
           did-away-with.
                                               ever-even
    not
                                                                         tō-lüng-ko-ān
                                                pe-jā
                                                            ân
                                                                       animal-one-even
                                                 goat
                                                         young-one
                             maü-chau
                                            haü-ū-chām,
                                                           kau
                                                                     kop-tang
                                                                                 lüy
                     Sang
          ma-jang.
    haü
                                            given · hadst,
                                                             \boldsymbol{I}
                                                                       both
                                                                                with
                               thou
    gave
            not.
                      <u>If</u>
                                                        tak-nai
                                                                   hēch (for hēt)-pyü-
                                tai-ko-khau-mai
                                                                    done-merriment-
                               friends-(oblique)
                                                     would-have
                                                                             maü-chau
                                                         thüng-mā-lüy
                chü-khün
                             luk
                                    maü
                                             a-nai
       ho;
    -indeed;
                                                      arrive-come-having
                                                                                thou
                                     thy
                                             this
                  but
                             80n
                                                                            maü-chau
                                                                    khâng
                                            tāng-poi-kā.
                                                            Man
                                         feast-hast-made.
                                                             He
                                                                   property
                                                                                thy
                                                                            Khăk-nan
                                                     kin-sing-kwā-jau.'
                              khām
                                        tang-lung
                     ngün
30. khau-khang
                                            all
                                                         devoured.'
                                                                               Then
                                gold
    rice-property
                     rupees
                                                                             ti man,
                                                         man-chau wā-kā
                                                                       said
                                                              he
                                                                              to
                                                                                him.
                                                     khu(n)-nang-kau
                                                                         ān
                                                                                  kau
     ' maü-chau
                     a-tüng
                                ũ
                                       lüy
                                              kau,
                                                                        what
                                                           and
                                                                                 mine
                                      with
                                               me,
       ' thou
                      ever
                               art
                                                    ka-sang-ka-sang
                                                                        jāng-ū
                                                                                   ko
                                                                     (I-) possess
                                                        whatever
                                                                                   a l 80
                                                                              2 в 2
```

TAL GROUP

NORĀ. 189

ān maŭ-jau. Chāng-nai hau thuk hēch (for hēt) pyü, whatthine-is. Now we mustdomerriment, khü(n)-nāng-kau hēt chaü chaŭ chōm nī wā-sāng-·nī, ho; anddo mind good, mind glad good indeed; for maü a-nai tai-kā pâk lüng, chāng-nai khü(n)-nāng-kau nâng . lē younger-brother thy this died time one, now andnip-mā; hai-kā, khü(n)-nāng-kau lived; lost-was, and

nai-kā-ho.' found-was-indeed.' [No. 8.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

NORĀ.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

· SPECIMEN II.

र्यक्ष मुख्या १० मिल्यू

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10°02 व्या का आती,

कुर्विक्रुट्टण स्मि

[No. 8.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

NORĀ.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

SOME NORA RIDDLES

met. 1. Ton kã lam man

> Tree fishing. itsis-equal rod

. khā. Nok pit nân kū

BirdTuni sleeps every branch.

Its tree is equal-to a fishing-rod, and the Tuni-bird sleeps on every branch Answer.—Ton-māk-khū, the Binjal-tree.

Mai-sāng lam-lüng fā ' sī 2.

> split four pieces. Bambooone

sik. lü 81 Lâm sī son

Encloses four compounds remains four pieces.

One bamboo, split into four pieces, encloses four compounds, and still remains Answer.—Mak-khū suk, a ripe Binjal. four pieces.

Shām hâng ma-lai. 3. nam

> does-not-run. drainsThree water

Shām ĭ lai. ma-to

Threewomen do-not-weave flowers.

Shām thau ma-to mē.

Three old-men do-not-cohabit (with-any)-wife.

Water does not run through three drains. Three women do not weave flowers. Three old men do not cohabit with any wife. Answer.—

Hång-läng,

hâng-hok,

Back (of a man), two grooves of a Toltha,

Tang-i-lam mai-ī,

pai sang.

and chanda-fish. Leaves of a certain jungle plant, ikrā-fish,

Kan-sau-shām hai.

Three kilns.

AITONIA.

As stated in the General Introduction to the group, the Aitons came into Assam from Müng Mau in quite modern times. It is said that there are only some two hundred of them altogether, some of whom live in the south-west corner of the Sibsagar District, and the others in the Naga Hills.

Their language, as appears from the specimen, is almost pure Shān. In fact, it is the form of speech illustrated by Dr. Cushing's Grammar of Shān, rather than that illustrated by Mr. Needham's Grammar of Khāmtī. The specimens which I have received from the local authorities of Sibsagar are evidently carefully prepared, and it has been easy to make out the meaning of the greater part of them. Only here and there I have come across a phrase which baffled me, and this was most probably due to my own ignorance, rather than to any incorrectness of the text.

The specimens consist of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and of the fable of the boy who cried 'wolf, wolf.' In the translation I have marked with a query any passages which appeared doubtful to me.

The true character of Aitoniā is recognised by the people of Assam, who also call it $Sh\bar{a}m\ Do\bar{a}n$, i.e., 'Shān speech.' In Assamese, $do\bar{a}n$ means 'a foreign language', and $Sh\bar{a}m$ is the word which the Burmese mispronounce 'Shān'.

Alphabet.—The alphabet used in the following specimens is almost entirely the Shān, and not the Khāmtī, one.

As regards consonants, we have the Khāmtī ∞ ka, instead of the Shān \circ , and the Khāmtī ∞ pha, instead of the Shān \circ . In every other case, when the Shān form differs from the Khāmtī one, the former is used. Thus we have the Shān \circ instead of the Khāmtī \circ for sa, and the Shān \circ instead of the Khāmtī \circ for na.

We have noted in Khāmtī, Tairong, and Norā how the word hit or het, to do, is always spelt hich or hech, and, under the head of Khāmtī, I have pointed out how this is due to the influence of Burmese, in which language a final ch is pronounced as t. This

194 TAI GROUP.

custom is carried still further in Aitonia, the word chet, seven, is written $\sqrt{8}$ chech, and pit, a duck, is written 8 $\sqrt{8}$ pich.

The letter ∞ \approx α , which is common in Āhom, Norā, and Shān, but does not appear to be used in Khāmtī or Tairong, is also common in Aitoniā.

The letter ha is usually written \mathfrak{S} . The tail is often omitted, so that we only have \mathfrak{S} (to be distinguished from \mathfrak{S} ha). This character, in a slightly altered form, viz. \mathfrak{S} , also appears in Tairong but there represents the letter ra. This is a very interesting fact, for it will be remembered that the letter ra in \overline{A} hom regularly becomes ha in the modern Tai languages.

It may be added that neither in Khāmtī nor in Shān does either the letter ra or the letter ha take this form. The forms they take in these languages, and in Burmese, are as follows:—

				Khämti.			Shãn.	Burmese.		
ra	•		•	ବ୍	•	•	•		As in Khāmtī	As in Khāmt _ī .
ha	•	•	•	ક્ર	•			•	s · ·	 <u>ග</u> .

The Khāmtī and Burmese signs for ha are the nearest forms.

Tones.—I can give no information on this subject. We may expect that the tones of Aitoniā are the same as those of Shān.

Nouns.—The plural is ordinarily formed by suffixing khau as usual.

Sometimes khau-sq is used, as in $p\bar{o}$ khau-sq, fathers. Nai-khau (literally, these-they) is also used, as in mq- $th\ddot{u}k$ nai-khau, horses, and many others in the list of words. Finally, we have fung-nai-khau in No. 116 of the list.

The Nominative sometimes takes the suffix ko, as in Ahom and Tairong. Thus, $s\bar{u}$ -ko $y\bar{a}ng$, you are, and many others in the list.

The Accusative can take the dative preposition $h\bar{a}ng$, as in Tairong; thus, $h\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{a}$ man $th\bar{a}m$ - $kw\bar{a}$, he asked a servant.

The usual preposition of the dative is $\mathcal{G} \mathcal{E}$ hang, as in Shan. We also have *lai*, as in *lai kun nī nai-khau*, to good men. Lai is also used for the ablative like many dative prepositions in the Tai languages.

The most usual prefix of the Ablative is luk, as in Khāmtī, or \bar{u} -luk as in Tairong. The Shān $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$ does not occur in the specimens. $T\bar{i}$ is, however, added to luk, as in \bar{u} -luk- $t\bar{i}$ $n\bar{a}n$ au, take from him. In \bar{u} -luk- $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}n$ or luk- $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}n$, afterwards, $t\bar{a}$ (also written $t\bar{a}$) is probably a corruption of tan, place, the final n being elided before the n of the following word. The phrase is, therefore, literally, from place that, from that place. Compare the formation of the future of verbs.

Lai (see Dative) and lai-pii are also used for the ablative. See list Nos. 104, 113, 118, 122; 109, 127.

Finally, $t\bar{\imath}$ alone is used as in Shān; e.g., $t\bar{\imath}$ faü, from whom?

AITONIĀ. 195

The genitive has no prefix or suffix, and, as usual, follows the word by which it is governed.

There are two suffixes in the list of words, $k \hat{a} n$, and se or sa, which seem to indicate any oblique case, much in the way that mai is used in Khāmtī.

We have them for instance,—

Dative,—luk-sau ān-lüng kán, to a daughter.

Luk-sau-man khau-sa, to daughters.

Ablative,—lai pō a-lüng kán, from a father.

Lai kun nī kō-lüng khün.kán, from a good man.

Lai-pü kun nī a-nān khau-sa, from those good men.

Genitive,—luk-sau kō-lüng kán, of a daughter.

Kun nī kō-lüng kán, of a good man.

Kháng man-se, his property.

Khā maü-se, thy servant.

Kun nī khau-sa, of good men.

 $S\ddot{a}$ is prefixed to the Genitive and Dative in Tairong.

Adjectives.—Few remarks are necessary. The numeral $l\ddot{u}ng$, one, can take the prefix $\bar{a}n$ or a, and then has the force of the indefinite article, like \bar{a} - $l\ddot{u}ng$ in Khāmtī.

The Comparative degree appears to be formed by suffixing $s\bar{s}$, equivalent to the Shān $\epsilon \infty$ $s\bar{e}$, to the adjective. Thus $n\bar{s}$ - $s\bar{s}$ a-nai, better (than) this. In such a case $m\bar{e}$ or $m\bar{a}$ (an intensive particle) is usually added to the verb, or is used by itself instead of a copula, $s\bar{s}$ being optionally omitted. Thus $n\bar{s}$ - $s\bar{s}$ a-nai ma- $y\bar{a}ng$, is better than this. In $h\bar{a}ng$ nang-chai man $h\bar{a}ng$ nang-sau man song $m\bar{e}$, literally, to brother of-him to sister of-him tall very, his brother is taller than his sister, both the nouns appear to be placed in the dative, unless $h\bar{a}ng$ means 'appearance, form'. The superlative is most simply formed by doubling the adjective, as in $n\bar{s}$ - $n\bar{s}$, very good. The adverb $khi\bar{n}$ (pronounced khen) is also used, as in khen $n\bar{s}$, very good.

Pronouns.—The pronouns call for no remarks. We should remember that $ma\ddot{u}$, thou, is pronounced, as in Shān, $m\ddot{u}l$. The demonstrative pronouns are q- $na\dot{i}$, this, and q- $n\bar{a}n$, that.

Verbs.—We may note that the usual sign of the past tense is $kw\bar{a}$ (cf. Shān $kw\bar{a}$, to go), but occasionally we find the Khāmtī $k\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $th\bar{a}m-kw\bar{a}$, asked; $het-k\bar{a}-yau$, they did; $nip-m\bar{a}$, became alive.

The Future takes both $t\bar{\imath}$, and also $t\bar{\alpha}$, a contraction of the Shān tak. Thus $kau\ t\bar{\alpha}$ pin, I shall be; $kau\ t\bar{\alpha}\ p\bar{o}$, I shall strike; $ma\ddot{u}\ t\bar{\imath}\ p\bar{o}$, thou wilt strike.

The participle suffix is sī.

There are several negative words. We may note $p\bar{a}$, not, in kau luk maü $p\bar{a}$ tān pin, I son of-thee not worthy am, I am not worthy to be thy son. With $p\bar{a}$, we may compare the North Shān pai, Khāmtī $p\bar{\imath}$, which, however, are only used with the Imperative. A more usual negative is mau (Āhom bau, Khāmtī mā, Shān mau), as in mau khaü-kā, did not wish: mau haü, did not give. The Khāmtī form, mā, appears in $ma-n\bar{\imath}$, not good, bad.

The Shan Assertive suffix ho is common. Thus \bar{u} -ho, am, or was, indeed: pai-ho, going-indeed.

[No. 9.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AITONIÄ.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

		Of EOMMEN);		
wor	6 mes	nym	njeom	we 11
Na	end	al se	agoesé	ceresso
6 cl	z c	G.	we ne	dieg ,
e de la como	on 30 36	went	o zer eg m	11 9
5 ~ 6	a do	ge.	e32A-6m	W.
·de-m	Disco	632	ne	wayo
'વેલ-2727	win	esmajo 1	1 orm w	Re 11
Dom	ત્રેમ્ક <i>ઈ</i>	. del	ajo	11

[No. 9.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AITONIA.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

	Kun <i>Man</i>	kō-lüng <i>person-one</i>		luk sons			g-kō ersons	yang.
	Luk-chai Son-male		n mge r	lau sai		$rac{ ext{h}ar{ ext{a}}}{t}$	o	pō-man, father,
	ʻpò, ʻ <i>fathe</i> r,	khång <i>property</i>	y	maü thy		ng•sāng hatever		weng-haü'. divide-give'.
	Luk-tā-nān <i>After-that</i>	i	yäng-säng vhatever(he	-		pān-haŭ- - <i>dividing</i>		Wai <i>After</i>
5.	$rac{ ext{lang}}{ ext{back}}$ (i.e. after	wards)	au taken	٤	khâng property		man∙se <i>his</i>	kwā <i>went</i>
	müng (to)-country	kai <i>far</i>	$egin{aligned} & ext{hech(het)} \ & did \end{aligned}$		nai edness	ngün silver	khâng <i>propert</i>	• •
	Müng (In)-country	nan <i>that</i>	yok great	•	k-yau. ine-arose	To Feb		kyü. into)-poverty.
	Pai-kwā (<i>He</i>)-went		.ün -house	lüng a		pai-pü take-refi		yau. d i d·

or eg	9	me an	nd o-0132-36	क्रा में जी
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ng cm	લુઇર્જુ 11	m mm	जा २०२०	
need wit	-no	M	en	mo
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15)		jo	લ્મિક્સ	Zo.
मुन्ते न्ह	ne	ેમ્મ ર્જ	Seo	whool
3º	ળ ત	C _n	G g	บุวาณิชิวส์
y's mo		,		

Haü-paü	${f m}$ ū	kāng	nā	chau	hün	nān.	Lai-pü
(He)-caused- (him) -to-tend	swine	in	field	of-owner	of-house	that.	Therefore

	(330)	(10116) 10 t		Juena oj	-owner o	-nouse inui.	i nerejore
10.	tok <i>fell</i>	khyü. (into)-poverty.	Sāk Food-leavings	mū <i>of-pigs</i>	ko <i>even</i>	khaü (he)-wished	kin. to-eat.
						•	
	Pha ü-k o		mau	ha	ü.	℧-	luk-tā-nān
	Anyo	one	not	gar	e.	$A_{\!\scriptscriptstyle i}$	fterwards
	sāng-wē-kā-sāng, senses-got(?),		ʻkhā ʻ <i>servants</i>	r		ather	kau <i>of-me</i>
	nai	k	in	nām,		kau	mā
	get	foo	od	much,		I	come
	to-th	kān e-place(?)	tâng - mai <i>of-belly-fir</i>		K	au T	${ m par{o}}$ $(to ext{-})father$
15.	pai	lau,	" pō		kau	hēi,	kau
	go	say,	``father	•	of-me	Ο,	I
`,		hun-fī $inst$ -) God	khāng-nā <i>before</i>	maŭ thee		$egin{aligned} & ext{hech(het)} \ & did \end{aligned}$	ōpāt ; sin ;
	kau	luk	maü	กลื		tān	
	I	son	of-thee	${f p}$ a ${m not}$		tän	pin;
	as.	201 6	9) 01000	1000		worthy	am;

hāng-kau me

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			Α	ITONIA.			201
	wā call s	khā-kin-chān ervant-eating-k		khā rva n	maü-se." thy."	' Kā-lāng <i>After</i>	nai <i>this</i>
20.	luk-se arisen-havi	ing (h	pai-sū e) <i>-went-rea</i>	ched	j	pò father	man. <i>his</i> .
-	$ar{ extsf{U}}$ (He)-was	tī-ka al-dista		$egin{array}{c} ext{P}ar{o} \ father \end{array}$	hān seen-h	-se l	eñ(len)-mā, <i>ran</i> ,
	kât embraced		luk-chai śon-male		man,		chwup <i>kissed</i>
	kyim(kem).		$egin{array}{c} \mathbf{Y}ar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{m} \ \mathbf{A}t)$ - $time$		$egin{array}{c} ext{nan} \ that \end{array}$		lau-kā (he)-said
	pō (to)-father	man, his,	ʻpō ʻfather	hēi, O,	k	hāng-nā <i>before</i>	khun-fi God
25.	khāng-nā before	maü <i>thee</i>		$egin{array}{l} \mathrm{hech(het)} \ (I) ext{-}did \end{array}$		ōpāt ; sin ;	kau <i>I</i>
	hâng (to-be-)calle	luk d son	mau not		ng'. vorthy)'.	${ m Par{o}} \ Father$	man <i>his</i>
	lau . word	haü, <i>gave</i> ,	· phā ' <i>robe</i>	· nī-r good-ş		haü-mi	
	nung-haü-tā put-(it)-on;			lāk-châ _. ring	р		haŭ-tā, give, 2 d

रिट जिल्ला भूटिका भू no C 200 25002 Mys 30. Per 60/ nomen. De de , And Eugh Mus again majo 11 W. २०२० मार्क कर्ना महाराज्य का महिला mi né मार्जिक-मार्ट्छम भावीर्ट مراث जीयाँ यह रहे me 11 vien war worn we 33 व गार भागा 9 mé vo en 20020 R

		Add to the state of							20	
	khep	ti	n		sup-	haü tā ;		hai	haü-kin,	
	shoe	fo	ot		pu	it-on;		give	-to eat,	
30.	hech (het)	$\mathrm{py}ar{\mathrm{o}}$	hech (he	et)	mu n	ť	ā ;	lul	c kau	
	do	happiness	do	·	joicing		$tive\ suffix)$			
	tai,	nij	o-mā ;			hai,		â	k-mā	
	died,	•	ne-alive;		$oldsymbol{w} as ext{-}lost.$				found	
								<i>y</i>		
	mā.'	${f Het}$	ру	Ò]	\mathbf{het}	mun	kā	-yau.	
	came.'	$\mathcal{D}o$	happi		1	do	rejoicing		y)- did .	
						•				
	${ m Y}{ m ar{a}m}$	${ m nar{a}n}$	luk-ch	ai	lung	man	ū	kāng	nā.	
	$(\mathcal{A}t)$ - ti		child- n		great	of-him	was	in	field.	
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	\mathbf{K} ã-l \mathbf{l} ang	ľuk-c	hai	lung		man	\mathbf{m} ā	th $$	ing	
	$\it Afterwards$	child- n	nale	great		of- him	came		pached	
35.	tai	hün,		n ai		$\sin s$	gr S	syang	(seng)	
	vicinity	of- $house$,		(he)- got		soun	id	of-m		
									•	
	sing	kång.		Hār	ıg-khā	r	nan	an	m-kwā,	
	sound	of- $drum$.		Se	rvant		he		sked,	
	,					•				
	ʻkhâm	lang	nai	khâr	n.	sāng P'	Khā	i	nai	
	'things	like	these	$thin_{\xi}$	ys	what?	Serva	nt	the	
	wā,	ć	nâng-chai	i		mā,		lai-	-pü-nai	
	said,		er-brother			came	,		erefore	
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cor 9 your or me-one san Es 40 Jm 11 go g m Aza Aut 2012-30 Je 6en g é uno mo on બ Bug cor year tho 45 Mm 2076/04 Mar 60 m W courgem Sem rim vo 200 खेट्हे ॥ कर्ष Gras

	•					
	pŏ <i>father</i>	maü <i>of-thee</i>	wā said		nau-khām <i>not-sick</i>	tāng
	Janes	0)=111100	sava		NOL-StCK	prepare
4 0.	poi	kā.'	Luk-chai	lung	man	khaü-chā,
	feast	did.'	Child-male	great	of-him	was-angry,
•	naü		hün	ma	au.	khaü-kā.
	to-enter		house	no	t	${\it wished}.$
	Ŭ-luk-tā-nān			pō		man
	$\it Afterwards$		j	father	,	his .
	mā,		tâng-pā	n	•	au-mā.
	came,		entreati	ng		brought.
	Tā-nān		khai-haü,		ʻpō,	kau
	Therefore		(he) = $answered$,		'father,	I
4 5.	luk		maü	chā-	-rē (chrē)	pai
	the-child		of-thee		in sult	not
	yā,		to-nai-ko	,'	pē-yā	ân
	break (i.e. do	,,	nevertheless		goat	young-one
	lüng-ko	mau	haü.		Luk-chai	la i- pü
	one-even	not	(thou)-ga	vest.	Son	but
	ngün		khām	tāng-l	ong	
	silver		gold	ali	l	

60 y monded	mm	७२न	₩ ∞ જિલ્લું ક	E.M.
9 m	Ng 11	७२०	you	ny m
Jo	oné de m	39	in	nd ingo
we ne	6 m	geg (જ દેખુ દ	age (
. 3	orm	205	87	Nom
en men	2 Soan	me e	gm g	

	mē-mâk-yā-sai-m (on)-harlots		kā. $ted,$		mā-thüng, ame-arrived,	pō father
50.	pai (<i>for</i> poi)-kā feasted	hau (<i>fo</i> gave	•	Man <i>He</i>	${ m lau,} \ { m \it said},$	ʻluk ʻ <i>child</i>
		tung-pī-ko <i>my-years-also</i>	maü thou	ŭ art	$_{with}^{\mathrm{lai}}$	kau; <i>me</i> ;
	yāng-sāng-ko whatever	khâng <i>property</i>	maü thine	${ m tang-lung} \ all.$		Nång nger-brother
	maü thy	tai-kā, <i>die</i> d,		nip-mā; became-alive		hai-kā, was-lost,
	åk-mā ; was-found ;	lai-pü-nai therefore	(1	tāng () <i>-prepare</i>	poi feast	kā'. did'.

[No. 10.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AITONIA.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

6 mg c M sol Deg " निर प्रदिक्त 90 m25 11

[No. 10.]

SIAMESE-CHINESE FAMILY.

TAI GROUP.

AITONIA.

(DISTRICT SIBSAGAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

$egin{aligned} ext{Luk} \ ext{\it Boy} \end{aligned}$			ân <i>young</i>		kö-lüng person-one
tai <i>near</i>	mān	. (pronounced be village	ān)	$rac{ ext{ling}}{ ext{tended}}$	wū. cattle.
${ m Luk}\ { m \it Boy}$	ân <i>young</i>	nai <i>the</i>	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{hech} & \mathbf{(het)} \ did \end{aligned}$	_	i (for pyō) ng (i.e. in sport)
ʻsü, ʻ <i>tige</i> r,			sü,' tiger,'		mün-yā made-noise
5. mün-hân <i>called</i>	g	$pau. \\ shouted. \\ \cdot$		$_{Brought}^{\mathrm{Au}}$	phā <i>dao</i>
au <i>brought</i>	râk s <i>pear</i>	kun people	tā <i>from</i>	mān (bān village	$ ho = rac{ ext{leñ (len)}}{ ext{ran}}$
mā. came.	r	Khau They		ā-thüng re-arrived	sü <i>tiger</i>
	ān. Tr uv. Clap	_	mü of-hands	$rac{ ext{kh} ilde{ ext{u}}.}{(ext{he}) ext{-}laughed}.$	Tī-pâk (<i>They</i>)-return 2 b

25 yo 11 025 men only जिल्ला ११ क्या १५ क्या 10. 24 6 0 m gm ? or no nso moder in sou in more of mar no ल्या भेट्ट mo q. . के के का ्य व्यक्ति ॥ 15 mg our way out in र्श्वम जा विभा भागी के विषय विषय ।।।

	hün to-house	yau. did.			nang-nai like-this	pān time	lüng <i>one</i>
	sâng <i>two</i>	pān times	au <i>brought</i>	ai. shame.	Wān <i>Day</i>	lüng <i>one</i>	tētē-tētē really
	sü tiger	mā, came	,	khau entered	muk the-her		wū. of-cattle.
	Man <i>He</i>	s	siñ (sin)-sang. screamed.		' Ma		phet <i>lies</i>
	kū man y	pān', times',	$egin{array}{c} ext{mau} \ ext{\it (they did)} \end{array}$	mā. not con		nān that	sü <i>the-tiger</i>
	kāp <i>bit</i>	wū, cattle	kī-la sevet		tō, animals,	tō animal	lüng one
15.	au, took,		kwā <i>went</i>		tī to		thün. forest.
	Ŭ-luk-tā-: <i>Therefo</i>			mün(<i>for</i> <i>he</i>			hū <i>knew</i>
	mün (<i>for</i> him (?)	•	kun-phet, person-who-l		phaü-ko anyone	mau not	wā-chaü. <i>believed</i> .

PHAKE OR PHAKIAL.

I regret that I can give no specimens of this Tai dialect. It is spoken by about 625 people who live north of Naga, at the west end of the South Brahmaputra portion of the Lakhimpur District, on the Sibsagar border.

All that I know about this tribe will be found in the General Introduction to the Group, on p. 64, ante.

STANDARD LISTS OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE TAI LANGUAGES OF ASSAM.

The following lists are transliterated from copies in the vernacular character received from Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. They are not always consistent, but I have not thought it right to alter them.

Eng		Ähom (Sibsagar).1					Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).						
1. One .	•	•	•	Lüng	•	•	•	•	Lüng	•	•	•	
2. Two .		•		Shang	•	•	•		Shâng	•	•	•	
3. Three		•	•	Shām ⁹	•		•	•	Shām	•		•	
4. Four .	•	•	•	Shi	•	•	•	•	Shī	•	•		
5. Five .	•	•	•	Hā	•	•			Hā	•	•		
6. Six . ·		•	•	Ruk (r	šk)		•	•	Hōk		•	•	
7. Seven		•	•	Chit (ch	ıet)	•	,		Chet			•	,
8. Eight	٠	•		Pit (pet)	•	•	` •	Pet	•	•		•
9. Nine .	•	•	•	Kau	•	٠	•	•	Kau		, •	•	
10. Ten .	•	•	•	Ship .	•	•	•	•	Ship	•	•		
11. Twenty		•	•	Shaü	•	•	•	•	Shau	•	•	•	•
12. Fifty.	•	•	•	Hā-ship	•	•	•	•	Hā-ship		•		•
13. Hundred	•	•	•	Pāk	•	•	•	•	Pāk lün	g	•	•	•
14. I .	•	•	•	Kāw, ka	u.	•	•	•	Kau	•	•	•	
5. Of me	•	•	•	Kau	•	•	•	•	Kau	•	•	•	•
.6. Mine .	•	•	•	Kau-mai	•		•	•	Khâng k	au (ny pr	opert	y) •
7. We .	•	•	•	Rāw, rau	L			•	dressed) or	hau	son (in c lu	ad- des
8. Of us	•	•	٠	Rau	•	٠	•	•	person Tu or ha	uare u	· •	•	•
9. Our .	•	•	•	Rau-mai	•	•	•	•	Khâng t	ũ.	•		•
0. Thou	•	. *	•	Maü, ma	u,	•	•	•	Maü	•	•	•	•
1. Of thee	•	•	•	Maü	•	٠	•	•	Maü	•	•	~°	•
2. Thine	•	•	•	Maü-mai	• •	•	•	•	Khâng m	aü	•	•	•
3. You .	•	•	-	Shü	•	•	•	•	Shū	•	•	•	•
4. Of you	•	•	•	Shü .	•	•	•	•	Shū	•	•	•	٠
5. Your	•	•	•	Shü-mai, property		ng sh	ü (yo	ur	Khâng sh	ប៊ែ	•	•	•
5. He .		•		Mān .		•		•	Man	•	•		
7. Of him				Man		•			Man				

In this list when the pronunciation differs from the spelling, the former is added in parenthesis.

In this list a final m is always written m in the original character.

Т	airong (Sibsag	gar).		Noiā (Si	ns gasd	٠.		Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Lüng	•	•	•	•	Lüng .	•	•	•	Lüng.
Sång	•	٨			Sâng .	•	•	•	Sâng.
Sām	•	•	•		Shām .		•	•	Sām.
Sī.	•		•		Sī.		•		Sī.
Ηā.		•		•	Hā .	•	•	•	Hā.
Huk (l	ıök)	•	•		Huk (hōk)	•	•	•	Huk (hok).
Chit		•	•	•	Chit (chet)	•	•	<u>:</u> .	Chich (chet).
Pet	•	•	•		Pyat (pet)	•	•	•	Pit (pet).
Kau	•	•	•		Kau .		•		Kau.
Sip	•	•	•	•	Sip, sip-lüng		•		Sip.
Sau	•	•	•	,	Shau-lüng	4 50	•	•	Sau.
Hā-sip	•	•	•	•	Hā-sip .	•	•		Hā-sip.
Pāk	•		•	•	Pāg-lüng	•	•		Pāk.
Kau	•	•	•	•	Kau .	•	•		Kau.
Lai-ka	n .	•	•		Tük-kau.	•	•	•	Khâng kau.
Khâng	g-kau	(my <u>j</u>	propert	y).	Tük-kau.	•	•	•	Khâng kau.
Hau	•	•	•	•	Hau .	•	•	•	Hau.
Lai-ha	uu.		• ,	•	Ān-hau .	•	•	•	Khâng hau.
Khân	g-hau	•	•	•	Ān-hau .	•	•	•	Khâng hau.
Maü	•	•	•	•	Maü .	•	•		. Май.
Laiz	ü-maü	•	•	•	Ān-maŭ .		•		Khâng maŭ.
Khân	g-maü	•	•	•	Ān-maü .	•	•		. Khâng maü.
Sā		•	•	•	Sū-chau .	•	•		. Sū.
Lai-p	ı ü- sü-n	ai .	•	,	Ān-sū-cḥau	•	•		. Khâng sũ.
Khâr	ıg-sü	•	•		. Ān-sū-chau	4	, •		. Khâng sũ.
Man	•	•	•	,	. Man, man-c	hau	•		. Man.
Lai-p	ü-man		•	,	Ān-man .	•	٣.		Khâng man.
	,				<u> </u>		4 -		m.: 015

En	English.					Sibsag	ar).		Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).				
28. His .		•	•	Män-ma	i, khr	âng	mān	•	Khâng r	nan	•	•	•
29. They	•	•		Khau	•		•	١.	Man kha	u or l	cha u	•	
30. Of them	•	•	•	Khau	•				Khau			•	•
31. Their	•	•	•	Khrang	-khau		•	•	Khâng l	chau	•		•
32. Hand			•	Mü	•	•	•		Phā mü	•	•		,
33. Foot .	•	•		Tin			•	•	Tin	•	•	•	
34. Nose .	•	•	•	Däng	•	•	•	•	Hũ nang	·		•	•
35. Eye .	•	•	•	Tặ	•	•	•	•	Tā	•	•	•	
36. Mouth	•	•		Shup or	· pāk	•	•	•	Shōp			•	•
37. Tooth	•	•	•	Khiu or	khrit	1	•		Khēō	•	•	•	•
38. Ear .	•	•		Pik	• 1		•	•	 Ping hū	•	•	•	•
39. Hair .	٠	*	•	Phrum	•	•	•	•	Phōm	•	•	•	•
40. Head	•	•		Rō	•	•	•	•	Ηδ	•	•	•	•
41. Tongue	•	•		Lin	•		•	•	Lin	•	•	•	,
42. Belly	•	•	•	Tâng	•	•	•	•	Tâng	•	•	•	
43. Back	٠	•		Läng	•	•	•	•	Lang	•	•	•	•
44. Iron .	•	•	•	Lik	•	•	•	•	Lēk	•	•	•	
45. Gold .	•	•	•	Khām	•	•	•	٠	Khām	•	•	•	•
46. Silver	•	•	•	Ngün	•	•	•	•	Ngũn	•	•	•	•
47. Father	•	•	•	Po	•	•	•	•	Pō, chau	•	•	•	٠
48. Mother	•	•	•	Me	•	•	•	•	Mē	•	•	. ^	•
49. Brother	•	•	•	Pi (elder	r), nâr	1g (y	ounge	r).	Pi = younger		, ná	ing :	=
50. Sister	•	•	•	Nüng, w	oith pī or you:	for nger.	elder d	and	Pi-shau :		<i>er</i> , nâ	ng-sh	au
51. Man .	•	•	•	Kūn, w phasize	hen g	ender	r is e	em- is	Pā-chai	•	•	•	•
52. Woman	•	٠	•	added. Nung or	kūn-ı	mī	•		Pā-ying	*	•	•	•
53. Wife	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	٠	Mē	•	•	•	•
54. Uhild	4	٠	4	Lik-khā	•	•	:		Tō ân	•	•	•	•
								1					

Tairong (Sibsag	gar).		Norā (Sibsagar). Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Khâng-mün (sic)	•	•	Ān-man Khâng man.
Khau .	•	•	•	Khau, khau-chau Khau
Lai-pü-khau		•	•	Án-khau, ān-khau-chau . Khâng khau.
Khâng-khau	•	•		Ān-khau, an-khau-chau . Khâng khau.
Mü .	•	•		Phā-mü Mü.
Tin .	,	•	-	Phā-tin Tin.
Hū-nāng.	•	•	•	Nang Ha mang.
Tā	•	٠	•	Та Та.
Sup .	•	•	•	Sup (sop) Sup (sop).
Khiu .	•	•	•	Khiu Siu (seu).
Ping-hū .	•	•	•	Hū Ping hū.
Fum .	•	•	• ;	Phum Fum (fom).
Hū .	•	•	•	Hō Hũ.
Lin .	•	•	•	Lin Lin.
Tâng .	•	•	•	Tâng Tâng.
Lāng .	•	•	•	Pe-lang Lang.
Lik .	•	. •	•	Lik Lik.
Khām .	•	•	•	Khām Khām.
Ngün .		•	•	Ngün Ngün.
Po .	•	•	•	Ръ Ръ.
Mē .	•	•	• 1	Mē Mē.
Nâng .	•	•	•	Nâng, nâng-chai, pī-chai . Nâng-chai, pī-chai younger, elder.
Nâng-sau	•	•	•	Pī-shau, nâng-shau . Nâng-sau, pī-sau younger, elder.
Kun pā-chai	•	•	•	Kun (kōn) , Kun.
Kun pā-ying	•	•	•	Pa-jing Pa-ying.
Mi .	•	•	•	Me Mī.
Luk-ying	•	•	•	Luk-jing, luk-chai . Luk-chai, luk-pa-ying male, female.

Eng	lish.			Ähom (Sibsagar).					Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).				
55. Son'.	•	•		Luk-mā	n	•	•	•	Lūk-cha	i.	•	•	•
56. Daughter		•		Luk-ñü	ng	•	•	•	Lūk-sha	n	•		٠
57. Slave			•	Khā	•	•	•	•	Khā			•	٠
58. Cultivato	or	•	•	Kūn-nā	-kio	٠	•	•	No word		•	•	•
59. Shephere	1,	•		Pā-lik	•	•	•	•	$\mathcal{D}itto$		•	٠	•
60. God	•	•		Ā-lâng wide,	<i>or</i> p lâng:	hū-rā power	tā-rā,	ā=	Phrā		•		•
61. Devil		•	•	Phrī	•	٠	•	•	Phī, lit.	spirit			·
62. Sun		•	•	Bān	•	•	•	•	Wan	•	•	•	•
63. Moon		•		Dün	•	•	•	٠	Nün or	lün	•	•	
64. Star		•	•	Dau	•	•		•	Nau				•
65. Fire	•	۰		Phai	•	•		٠	Phai	ů	•		•
66. Water	•	•	•	Nām	•	•	•	•	Nam	•	•	• .	•
67. House	•	•	, .	Rün ,	•	•	•	•	Hün	•	•	•	•
68. Horse	•	•	•	Mā (pro	noun	ced lor	ig)	•		•••	***		
69. Cow	•	•	•	Нū	•	•	•	•	Ngō	•	•	•	•
70. Dog	•	•	•	Mā (pro	ทอนท	ced sh	u rt)	. !	Mā	•	•	•	٠
71. Cat .	•	••	•	Miu, mi	ñ.	•	•	•	Mī-au	•	ů.	•	•
72. Cock	•	•	•	Kai	•	•	•		Kai-phū	•	•	•	•
73. Duck	•	•		Pit (pet	:)	•	•	•	Pet	•	•	•	•
74. Ass	•	•	•	Mā	•	•	•	•			• • • •		
75. Camel	•	•	٠	Mrāt	4	•	•	•		4 4 4	• • • •	e e	
76. Bird	•	•	•	Nūk (n	uk)	,•	•	•	Nok	•	•	•	٠
77. Go .	•	٠	•	Kā, pai	, or I	hrai	•	٠	Ka	•	•	٠	u
78. Eat	•	•		Kin	•	•	•	•	Kin (al	so ' dr	înk')	•	•
79. Sit .	•	•	•	Nang	ŧ	•	•	•	Nang	•	•	•	•
80. Come	•	•		Mā	- n	•	•	٠	Mā	•	•	•	٠
81. Beat	•	•	•	Po	•	•	•	٠	Pō	•	•	•	•

Tairc	ong (S	Sibsaga	r).		Norā (Sibs	agar).			Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Luk-chai.	•	•	•	•	Luk-chai .	•	•	•	Luk-chai
Luk-sau .	ı	•			Luk-jing .		•		Luk-sau.
Khā .				•	Khā-jing, khā-c	hai	•	•	Khā.
Sau-hit-nā	i	•		•	Pā-hit (het) ạ-n	иū	•		Hit-ạ-mū.
Sau-ling-p	eng-	ña			Pa-ling pe-jā .		•		Ling pē-yā.
Frā .		•		•	Phrā	•	•		Chau-frā.
Fi			•	•	Phī-bun		*		Fi-hai.
Wān .		•		•	Ban, khun-ban		•		Wān.
Nün .		•	•		Nün		•		Nün.
Nau .		•	•	•	Nau .	•			Nau.
Fai .	:	•	•		Phai	•	•	•	Fai.
Nām .		•	•	•	Nām .		•		Nām.
Hün .	ı	•	•	•	Hün	•	•		Hün.
Mā .		•	•		Mą .	•	•	•	Ma thük.
Mē-ū .		•	•		Ngā-tā-mē (ng	ō-tō-r	ne)	•	Wū-mē.
Mā .		•	•		Mā .	•	•		Mā-thük.
Mēu .		•		•	Myü	•	•		Myü.
Kai-thük		•	•	•	Kai-fū (fō) .		•		Kai-fū.
Mē-pit .		•	•		Pit-tū-mē (pet-t	ō-mē)		Pich(pit)-mē.
Mā-lāng-k	hüng	5			Lā		•	•	Lā.
Mā-kho-ya	LIZ.	•		•					Khā-sī.
Nuk (nok))	•		•	Nuk (nök) .		•		Nuk (nok).
Pai, kā .				•	Kā, kwā	,	•	•	Pai, kwā.
Kin .	ı	•			Kin			•	Kin.
Nāng-lā .		•		•	Nāng		•	-	Nang.
Mā-lā .	1			•	Mā		r		Mā
Pō .	ı	•	•		Pō	1	•	•	Pō.
•									Toj210

Englis	h.			Ahom (S	Khämtī (Lakhimpur).						
82. Stand	•	•	•	Khün .	•	•	•	Sau .	•	•	
83. Die	•		•	Tai .	•	•	•	Tai .	•	•	
84. Give .	•	•		Haü .	•	•		Haü .	•	•	•
85. Run	•	•	•	Lin (len)	•	•	•	Len ,		•	
86. Up .	•	•		No	•	•	•	Kā-nü = place.	above,	, higher	in
87. Near .	ı	•		Tai or klai	•	•	•	Tai .	•	•	•
88. Down .	•	•	•	Taü .	• ,	•	•	Tam = lm	v, n e ar	the gro	und
89. Far .		•		Jau <i>or</i> shai	•	• .	•	Kai .		•	•
90. Before	•	•	•	Khāng-nā	•	•	•	Kā-nā = Khang-n	$\bar{\mathbf{a}} = befo$	is in ti	me,
91. Behind .	ı	•	•	Kā-lāng	•	•	•	or presen Kā-lang .	ce of.	•	•
92. Who		•	•	Phraü .	•	•	•	Phaü .	•	•	٠.
93. What	•	•	•	Kā-shāng	•	•	•	Kā-sang.	•	•	•
94. Why .	ı	•		Ba .		•	•	Het-sang	•	•	•
95. And .		•		Chām, ko, bā-	ān, p	oi	•	Ko .	•	•	•
96. But		•	•	Tü-bā, tū(to)-	·bā		•	Tō-nai-ŭ-k	:0 .	•	
97. If		•		Shang .	•	•	•	Made by a negative	partic particl	iple, an e.	ed a
98. Yes .		•	•	Khriu .	•	•	•	Chaü .	•	•.	-
99. No	•	•	•	Bū-khriu	•	•	•	N'chaü .	•	•	•
100. Alas .		•	•	Nik-chā .	•	•	•	No word .	•	•	•
101. A father .		•	•	Po-lüng .	•	•	•	Po .	•	•	•
102. Of a father		•	•	Po-lüng .	•		•	Po (after noun).	r the	govern	ing
103. To a father		1E	•	Tī-po-lüng	•	•	•	Pō-mai .	•	•	•
104. From a fatl	ier	٠		Luk-po-lüng	•	•	•	Luk-pō .	•	•	•
105. Two fathers	3	•		Shâng po	•	•		Shâng-pō			•
.06. Fathers .		•		Khau-po .	•	•	•	Pö-khau (k	hau == onoun).	they, I	Per-
.07. Of fathers		•		Khau-po .	•	•		Pō-khau .	•		
.08. To fathers				Tī-khau-po	•	•		Pō-khau-m	nai .	•	•
							1				

Tairong (Sibsaga	r),	Norā (Sibsagar).	Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Sān-sān		San	Luk-chan-chan.
Tai		Tai	Tai-kwā.
Haü		Най	Най-та.
Len		Liñ (len)	Liñ (len).
Kāng-hau .		Kān-hü	Käng-hau.
Kaü		Tī-ka ü	Kaü.
Ka-taü		Kān-taü	Ką-taŭ.
Kai		Kai	Kai.
Kān-nā	• •	Ân-tāng	Ką-nā.
Kā-lāng		Kān-lāng	Ką-lang.
Faü		Phaü	Faü.
Kā-sāng	,•	Ka-sang	Ka-sang.
Lai-sāng .	•	Hit (het)-sang	Ī-sāng-nai.
Khün-ka u .	•	Khün-kau, khün-nāng-kau	Khün-kau.
Khün-kā-sāng.		Chü-khün	Ū-luk-nān.
Sāng-nai.	•	Sāng-bā	Sāng-maü.
Sau	•	Chaü, chaü-yo	Chau.
Nang-sau .	•	Mạ-chaü	Nüng-chaü.
Kau-yē	•	Ī-nu-tạ-pün	Pin-sang.
Pō-lüng	•	Pō-man kō lüng	Pō a-lüng.
Khâng pō-lüng.	•	Pō-man kō lüng	Po a-lüng.
Hāng pō-lüng-nai	•	Hāng pō-man kō lüng .	Hāng pō a-lüng.
O-luk pō-lüng .	•	Luk-ti pō-man	Lai pō a-lüng kân.
Sâng-pō.	•	Pō-man sâng-kō	Pö sång-kö.
Pō-khau.			Pō khau-sạ.
Khâng pō khau			Pō khau.
Hāng pō-khau-nai		Häng pō-man khau .	Hāng pō-man khau.

English.	Āhom (Sibsagar).	Whāretī (Faldimana)
ong nau.	Anom (Stosagur).	Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).
109. From fathers .	Luk-khau-po	. Luk-pō-khau
110. A daughter .	Luk-ñüng-lüng .	. Lūk-shau
111. Of a daughter .	. Luk-ñüng-lüng .	. Lūk-shau
112. To a daughter .	Ti-luk-ñüng-lüng .	. Lük-shau-mai
113. From a daughter	. Luk-luk-ñüng-lüng .	. Luk-lük-shau
114. Two daughters .	Shâng luk-ñüng .	Lūk-shau-shâng-tō (tō is numeral particle).
115. Daughters .	Khau-luk-ñüng .	. Lūk-shau-khau .
116. Of daughters .	Khau-luk-ñüng .	Lük-shau-khau .
117. To daughters .	Tī-khau-luk-ñüng .	. Lük-shau-khau-mai .
118. From daughters	Luk-khau-luk-ñüng .	. Luk-lük-shau-khau .
119. A good man .	Kūn-dī-phū-lüng (l'hū i the male sign).	Kön nī
120. Of a good man .	Kūn-dī-phū-lüng .	. Kön nī
121. To a good man	Tī-kūn-dī-phū-lüng .	Kön nī-mai
122. From a good man	Luk-kūn-dī-phū-lüng	Luk-kön ni
123. Two good men	Shâng kūn-dī	Kön nī-shâng-tö
124. Good men	Khau-kün-dī	Kon ni-khau
125. Of good men	Khau-kūn-dī-mai .	Kôn nĩ-khau
126. To good men .	Tī-khau-kūn-dī .	Kon nī-khau-mai
127. From good men.	Luk-khau-kūn-dī	Luk-kōn nī-khau
128. A good woman	Kūn-dī-mī-lüng	Pā-ying nī
129. A had boy	Chā tū-ân-lüng .	Tō-ân n'nī
130. Good women	Khau-kün-mi-di .	Pā-ying-khau nī
131. A bad girl	Chā nāng-lüng	Lūk-pā-ying n'nī
132. Good	Di	Ni
133. Better	Khüñ (khün)-dī	See grammar
134. Best	Khüñ-di-tāng-nām	Ditto
135. High	Shung	Ditto
	<u> </u>	1

Tairong (Sibsagar).	Norā (Sihsagar).	Aitoniā (Subsagar).
	Luk-tī pō-man khau.	Lai-pü pō-man khau.
Luk-sau lüng	Luk pa jing kō lüng	Luk-sau kō-lüng.
Khâng-luk-sau lüng-nai	Luk-chau-man pa lüng mai	-
_	•	
Hāng luk-sau-nai		Luk-sau ān-lüng kân.
O-lok luk-sau lüng	Luk-chau-man pa lüng mai	Lai luk-sau kō-lüng.
Sâng-sau	Luk-chau sâng-kō	Luk-sau sâng-kō.
Luk-sau-khau	Luk-chau khau	Luk-sau-man khau.
Luk-sau-khau-nai	Luk-chau-man khau .	Luk-sau fung-nai khau.
Sā-hāng luk-sau-khau-nai .	Luk-chau khau mai	Luk-sau-man khau-sa.
Lai-sau-khau-nai	Tī luk-chau khau mai .	Lai luk-sau-man khau.
Kun ni lüng	Kun (kōn) ni fū lüng	Kun nī kō-lüng.
Khâng kun nī-nai	Luk-tī kōn nī fū lüng .	Kun nī kō-lüng kân,
Häng kun-ni	Hāng kōn nī fū lüng mai .	Kun nī kō-a-lüng.
O-luk kan-ni	Luk-ti kön ni fü lüng mai .	Lai kun nī kō lüng khün kân.
Kun-nī sâng-kū	Kōn nī sáng-kō	Kun nī sâng-kō.
Kun nī-khau	Kōn nī khau	Kun ni ān-khau.
Sā kun nī-khan	Ān kön nī khau	Kun ni khau-są.
Sā-hāng kun nī-khau-nai .	Ti kön ni khau	Lai kun nī nai khau.
O-luk kun ni-khau	Luk kōn nī na khau mai	Lai-pü kun nī ą-nān khau- są.
Pā-ying-an nī lüng	Pạ jing kōn nĩ pạ lüng .	Pa-ying nī pa-lüng.
Luk mā-nī lüng	Luk-ân mạ-nĩ kō lüng .	Luk kō-lüng mạ-nī.
Pā-ying nī-khau	Pa jing ni khau	Pą-ying nī ạ-nai khau.
Pā-ying-keng-yūk lüng .	Luk-ân pạ jing mạ-nī kō lüng.	Pa-ying iñ(en) kō-lüṅg mạ nī.
Ni	Nī	Ni
Chā-ân-lüng-nī	Nī ān-tân	Nī-sī a-nai ma-yāng.
Nī-siñ-yo	Nī ān-tân tāng lung .	A-nai khiñ (khen) ni.
Song	Sung (song)	Sung (song).

Euglish.			Ahom (Sibsag	ar).	Khāmtī (I	akhimpur).
136. Higher .		•	Khüñ-shung .		See grammar	• •
137. Highest .	•		Khüñ-shung-nām-	nām .	Ditto	
138. A horse .	•		Mā-thük-lüng .		No word .	• •
139. A mare .	•		Mā-me-lüng .		Disto	
140. Horses .			Khau-mā-thük		Ditto	
141. Mares .	•		Khau-mā-me .		Ditto	• •
142. A bull .	•		Hū-thük-lüng .		Ngō-thük	
143. A cow .	•	•	Hū-me-lüng .		Ngō .	
144. Bulls .			Khau-hū-thük	• .	Ngō-thük-kha	u (thük is the used for ani
145. Cows .		•	Khau-hū-me .	•	mals). Ngö-khau	usea jor anv
146. A dog .	•	•	Mā-thük-lüng .		Ma .	• •
147. A bitch .	,	•	Mā-me-lüng .		Mā-mē (mē =	female)
148. Dogs .	•	•	Khau-mā-thük		Mā-khau	
149. Bitches .	•	•	Khau-mā-me .		Mā-mē-khau	
150. A he goat	•		Pe-ngā-thük-lüng		Pē-yā-thük	• • •
151. A female goat	•		Pe-ngā-me-lüng		Pē-yā .	• • •
152, Goats .	•	•	Khau-pe-ngā .		Pē-yā-khau	• •
153. A male deer	•		Tü-ngī-thük-lüng		Nü-thük	
154. A female deer			Tü-ngī-me-lüng		Nű-mē .	
155. Deer .	•		Khau-tü-ngī .	١.	Nü-khau	
156. I am .		•	Kau ū		Kau yang-ū	
157. Thou art .		•	Maü ū		Maü yang-ū	
158. He is .			Manū		Man yang-ū	• • •
159. We are .		•	Rau ū		Tū yang-ū	• • •
160. You are .	•	٠.	Shü ū		Shû yang-û	
161. They are .	•		Mān-khau ū .	• •	Khau yang-ū	
162. I was •	•		Kau ü-jau .	•.	Same as preser	nt tense .

Tairong (Sibsaga	r).		Norā (Sibsagar).		Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Nü-sī-song .	•	•	Song-se ān-nai	•	•	Nü-si song-ko song.
Song-tā-tē .	•	•	Song-lüm tāng lung	•		A-nai khen song.
Mā tū lüng .	•	•	Mạ tũ(tō) lüng		ų	Mạ-thük tū(tō)-lüng.
Mā-mē tū lüng	٠	•	Mạ tō-mẽ lüng	•	•	Mạ-mē tō-lüng.
Mā-khau .	•		Mạ nạ-khau .	•	•	Mą-thük nai-khau.
Mē-mā-khau .	•	•	Mạ mẽ nạ-khau	•	•	Mą-mē nai-khau.
Ū-thük	•	•	Ngō tō lüng .	•	•	Wū-thük tō-lüng.
Ū-mē lüng .		•	Ngō tō-mē lüng	•	•	Wū-mē tō-lüng.
Ū-thük-khau .	•	•	Ngō thük nạ-khau	•	•	Wū-thük nai-khau.
Mē-ū-khau .	•	•	Ngō mē nạ-khau	•	•	Wű-mē nai-khau.
Mā lūng .	•	•	Mā to lüng .	•	•	Mā-thük tŏ-lüng.
Mē-mā lüng .	•	•	Mā tō-mē lüng	•	•	Mā-mē tō-lüng.
Mā-khau .	•	•	Mā thük na-khau	•	•	Mā-th ük na i-khau.
Fung mē-mā .	•	•	Mā mē nạ-khau	•	٠	Mā-mē nai-khau.
Peng-ñā-thük lüng			Pe-jā thük lüng	•	•	Pē-yā-thük tō-lüng,
Peng-ñā-mē lüng			Pe-jā tō-mē lüng	•		Pē-yā-mē tō-lüng.
Peng-ñā-khan .	•		Pe-jā na-khau .	•	•	Pē-yā nai-khau.
Ngī-thük lüng .	•		Nü thük lüng .	•	•	Nü tō-thük.
Mē-ngî lüng .	•		Nü tō-mē lüng	•	•	Nü tō-mē.
Ngi		•	Nü	•		Nü.
Kaupin		•	Kau chaü .	•	٠	Kau yāng.
Maŭ pin .	•1		Maü chaü .	•		Mau yang.
Man chau .	•	•	Man chaü .	•		Man yāng.
Hau pin	•		Hau chaŭ .	•		Hau yāng.
Sā pin	•		Sū chaü	•		Sū-ko yāng
Khau chau .	•	٠	Khau chaü .	•	•	Khau-ko yāng.
Kau yang-nai			Kau jāng-wai .			Kau yāng.

	Engli	ish.			Āb	om (S	ibsagar).		ĸ	hāmtī (l	Lakbimpu	e).	
163.	Thou was	t	•	•	Maü ü-ja	1-TL	•	•	•	Same	as pres	ent tense	}	•
164.	He was	•	•		Mān ū-ja	au		•	•		Ditto			•
165.	We were	•			Rau ū-ja	LU.	•	•	•		Ditto			•
166.	You were			•	Shü ü-ja	.u.	•		•		Ditto			•
167.	They were)	•	•	Mān-kha	a ũ-j	au	•			Ditto		1	•
168.	Ве .	•			Ñāng or	ũ		•		Chaü	•		•	•
169.	To be	•			Ñäng or	ű	•		•	Ditto	•	•	•	
170.	Being	•	•	•	Ñāng-shi	i <i>or</i> ū	-shī	•		Made a p cle.		nī good kau-mai me pō-tā, beat.	dor	ng $\bar{1}$
171.	Having be	9 01	•		Ñāng-sh	i or ū	-shī	•			$oldsymbol{Ditto}$	•	•	Ł
172.	I may be	•			Kau pin	-ū (c a	n be)				$\mathcal{D}itto$	•	•	
173.	I shall be	•			Kau tī-ŭ	L	•				$m{Ditto}$	•	•	•
174.	I should b	8	•		Kau ū-ti	-koi		•			Ditto	•	•	•
175.	Beat	•	•		Po	•	•	•	•	Pō			•	
1 76.	To beat		•	•	Po		•		•	Pō	•	•	•	•
177.	Beating		•		Po-shi	•	•	2	•	Pō-sh		•	•	•
178.	Having be	aten	•		Po-shi		•	•	•	Pō-sh	i.	•		•
179.	I beat	•	•		Kau po	٠	•	•		Kau 1	ŏ•ū	•		
180.	Thou beat	test	•	•	Maü po	•	•	•	•	Maü p	0-ü	•	•	
181.	He beats	•	•	•	Mān po		•		•	Man	pō-ū	•		
182.	We beat				Rau po	•				Tā pā	5- ũ .	•	٠	,
183.	You beat		•	•	Shü po	•	•	•		Shū I	0 - ū	•	•	
184.	They bear	t		w	Män-kh	au po		•	•	Khar	pō-ā	•		
185	. I beat (F	Past T	ense)	•	Kau po	-jau			•	Kau	pő-kã d	r pō-mā		
186	Thou be		(Pa	ıst	Maü po	-jau		X .		Maü	pō-kā	or pō-mā	ļ.	
187	. He beat		Tense) .	Mãn po	-jau		`•	•	Man	pō-kā (or po-mā		
188	. We beat	(Pasi	Tense	·) .	Rau po	-iau	_			Tũ p	ō-kā or	pō-mā		

Tairong (Sibsag	gar).		Norā (Sibsagar),		Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Maü yāng .	,	•	Maü jāng-wai .	•	-	Maŭ-ko yāng.
Man yang ,	•	•	Man jāng-wai .	•		Man-ko yāng.
Han yang-sa .	•	•	Hau jāng-wai .	•		Hau-ko yāng.
Fung-sū yāng .		•	Sü jāng-wai .	•	•	Sū-ko yāng.
Fung-khau yāng			Khau jäng-wai.	•	•	Khau-ko yāng
Chau	•		Pin (pen) .	•		Chaü.
Hāng chan .	•	•	Tak pen .	•	•	Haü pin (cause to be).
Man-yo	,	•	Pen	•	•	Mü pin nai.
Yang	•	•	Pen-se	•.	•	Pen-ho.
Kau pē-pin .	•	•	Kau tạ pe pen	•	•	Kau tạ pē pin.
Kau tī-pin-sā .	•	•	Kau tak pen .	•	•	Kau tạ pin.
Kau pin-ni-yo .	•	•	Kau tak-nai pen	•	•	Kau haü pin-są.
Pō-lā	•	•	Po	•	•	Pō.
Hāng pō .	•	•	Tak-po	•	•	Tā pō.
Pō-sī-ū	٠		Po-se	•		Mü pō nai.
Pō-yau	•	•	Po-se .	•	•	Pō-yau.
Kan tī-pō .	•	٠	Kau po	•	•	Kau po.
Maü põ-lä .	•	•	Maü po	•	•	Maŭ pō.
Man pō-yo .	•	•	Man po	•	•	Man pō.
Hau ti-pō	•	•	Hau po	•	•	Hau pō.
Sũ pō-lā	•		Sū po	•	•	Sũ pỡ.
Khau pō-yo .	•	•	Khau po	•		. Khau pō.
Kau pō-kā-yau	•	•	Kau po-kā .	÷	,	Kau pō-yau.
Maŭ pō-kā-nai	•	•	Maü po-kā .	•		Май ръ-уац.
Man mō-pō .	•	•	Man po-kā	•		Man pō-yau.
Hau pō-kā-yau	•	•	Hau po-kā .	•		. Hau pō-yau.
			<u>l</u>			

English.	Ahom (Sibsagar).	Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).
189. You beat (Pust Tense)	Shü po-jau	Shū pō-kā or pō-mā
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Khau po-jau	Khau pō-kā or pō-mā
191. I am beating	Kau po-ū	Kau pō-shī-ū
. 192. I was beating .	Kau po-ū-jau	Ditto
193. I had beaten	Kau po-jau-o	Kau pō-kā-yau
194. I may beat	Kau pin-po (can beat)	Cannot be expressed .
195. I shall beat	Kau tī-po	Kau tī-pō
196. Thou wilt beat .	Maŭ tī-po	Maü tī-pō
197. He will beat	Män tī-po	Man ti-po
198. We shall beat	Rau tī-po	lū tī-pō
199. You will beat	Shü tī-po s	Shū tī-pō
200. They will beat	Khau ti-po K	Chau tī-pō
201. I should beat	Cau ti-po-jan K	au tī-pō
202. I am beaten K	au-mai po-ü (mai is used in the passive voice when the	annot be given
909 T	ayent itself is an object). au-mai po-jau	Ditto
204. I shall be beaten . K	au-mai tī-po-ū	Ditto
205. I go K	au pai <i>or</i> kau-ko pai . Ka	au kā-ū
206. Thou goest M	aŭ pai Ms	aŭ kā-ū
207. He goes Mi	in pai Ma	ın kā-ū
208. We go Ra	u pai	kā-ū
209. You go Sh	li pai Shi	ū kā-ū
210. They go	au pai Kh	au kā-ū
211. I went Ka	u pai-kā Kar	ı kā-kā
212. Thou wentest Ma	ü pai-kā Mai	i kā-kā
213. He went $M_{ ilde{a}1}$	n pai-kā Man	ı kā-kā
214. We went Ran	pai-kā Tū l	rā-kā
215. You went Shü	pai-kā Shū	kā-kā
Tai-228		

Tairong (Sibsagar)	•	Norā (Sit	ssegar).	•		Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Fung-sū pō-kā-nai	•	Sū po-kā	•	•		Sū pō-yau.
Khau pō-kā-nai	٠	Khau po-kā		•	•	Khau pō-yau.
Kau pō-yo	•	Kau po-ū	•	•	•	Kau pō-sī ū.
Kau pō-sī-ū	,	Kau po-se-ū	•	•	•	Kau pō-sī ū-ho.
Kau pō-mā		Kau po-kā	•	•	•	Kau pō-wai.
Kau pē-pō		Kau pe-po	•	•	•	Kau tī-pē-pō.
Kau tī-pō	•	Kau tak po or	tạ po	•	•	Kau tạ-pō.
Maü pō-lā	•	Maü tạ po	•	•	•	Maü tī-pō.
Man tī-pō		Man tạ po	•	•	•	Man tī-pō.
Hau-ko-tī-pō	•	Hau tạ po	•	•	•	Hau tī-pō.
Sũ pō-lã _	•	Sũ tạ po	•	•	•	Sū tī-pō.
Muk-khau tī-pō	•	Khau tạ po	•	•	•	Khau tī-pō.
Kau khau-pō .	•	Kau haü-nai-p	o o	•	•	Kau haü•nai pō.
Hāng kau pō-yo	• •	Kau kin khân	(I eat	strip	es)	Pō hāng-kau.
Pō kau	• , •	Kau kin khân	. kā	•	•	Hāng-kau pō-kwā. ,
Kau-mai tī-pō .		Kau tak kin k	chân	•	•	Tạ-pō hāng-kau.
Kau pai .	• •	Kau pai .	•	•	•	Kau pai.
Maü pai .		Maü pai .	•	•	•	Maŭ pai.
Man kā-yo		Man pai	•	•	•	Man pai.
Hau kā-tī-kā-yo		Hau kā .	•	•	•	Hau pai.
Sū kā-lā	• •	Sū kā .	•	•	•	Sū pai.
Khan pai-yo .		Khan kā .	•	•		Khau pai.
Kau pai-mā .	• •	Kau pai-ū		•		Kau pai-kwā.
Maŭ-ko pai-mā	•	Maŭ pai-ū	•	•		Maŭ pai-kwā.
Man pai-mā .	•	Man pai-ū	•	ه	,	Man pai-kwā.
Hau-ko kā-mā	•	Hau kā-wai	•	•		Hau pai-kwā.
Sū-ko kā-mā .	•	Sū kā-wai	• •	•		. Sū pai-kwā.

English.	Ähom (Sibsagar).	Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).
216. They went	Khau pai-kā	Khau kā-kā • • •
217. Go	Pai or phrai	Kā-tā
218. Going	Pai-shī	Kā-shī
219. Gone	Pai-shī-o	Kā-kā-yau
220. What is your name?.	Maŭ chü kā-shāng ữ ?	Chü mai wā hii? Name your say what?
221. How old is this horse?		Māā-naiā-shāk khā-laü? Horse this age how-manu?
6 7 8	Ti-nai luk-tām Kāshmīr ki- 2 3 shai ū P (to here from	Lūk-mai müng Kashmir
here to Kashmir?	$Kashm\bar{i}r$).	
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Po maŭ run kī-chām luk-	Hün pö maü mai House father yours in lük-chai khū-laü yang-ū?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	6 1 3 5 4 Mü-nai kau phrai shai-nī 2 jau-koi.	Kau mā-nai kai lõng <i>I to-day far way</i> phai-kā. walked.
married to his sister.	Luk-mān kau au-chau aü 6 8 7 mī nâng-shaü mān.	Son uncle mine lūk-pā-ying mai au- sister his take- mē-kā. female-did.
4 5	I-ū āu phük mặ ñāng khau)
saddle of the white horse.	rün (ī-ū = this).	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} No \ word \ for \ saddle. \end{array} ight.$
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	I-ū an bai-shī nō lāng mān (shī = sign of imperative).	
228. I have beaten his son 7 8 with many stripes.	1 3 4 5 6 78 Kau po mân luk tāng khân 3 koi.	Lūk-chai man kau nam-nam Son his I much pō-kā. beut.
1 2 3 4 5 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Mãn pã-ẽ khau-ling nữ doi	No word for grazing cattle.
7 2 3 45 8	1 2-3 4 6 5 7	£.
230. He is sitting on a horse ander that tree.	Mẫn năng-ũ nô mặ-lũng kã- s taü ã-nān tun.	,,,,,,
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Mān nâng-mān khüñ-shung 3 5 6 7 ū luk mān nâng-ñüng.	Pī man shūng lüm-shī Brother his taller thun pī-shau man. sister his.
232. The price of that is two of the rupees and a half.	Ā-nān khān trā-shâng-tâk 7 8 4 poi phā-khrung-klāng ū. (Trā=silver, trā-shâng-tâk = two-silver-tōlas, i.e. rupees).	Kā ā·nan shâng trā. Price that two rupees. (I forget what word is for 8 annas.)

Tairong (Sibsagar).	Norā (Sibsagar).	Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Khau-ko pai	Khau kā-wai	Khau pai-kwā.
Pai	Kā	Pai.
Kā-sī-ŭ	Mü pai-kā	Pai-ho.
Pai-mā	Pai kwā	Pai-kwā.
Chü maü sāng ?	Chü maü kạ-sāng	Maŭ chü sāng ?
Mā nai ā-sāk khā-laü lüng?	Ma nai thun ki pi	Ma a-nai kī pī koi ?
Luk-tī-nai Kashmir-nai kai khā-laü lüng ?	Luk-thai Kashmir kai khạ laü.	Ŭ-luk-ti nai Kasmir kai khā naü lung ?
Hün põ maü luk-chai khā- laü yāng ?	Hün pö maü luk kha laü jäng.	Hün põ maü khau luk-chai ki kõ yäng ?
Mā-nāi kau ū-luk tī-kai fai- mā.	Kau ma-nai fai-mā khun tāng kai.	Kau ma-nai lē-kai mā-yau.
Hāng nâng-sau au-mā hāng-luk pō au lüng-mā.	Tāng luk au kai lüy nâng shau man pên hün-kā.	Luk an kau au-lung nâng- sau man mā.
Ān mā fük nai ti hün yang- nā.	Ấn mạ fük nai jāng tĩ hün	Hün a-nan tyap (tep) ma fük yang.
Tī-lāng mun (sic) saü ān .	Tī lāng man ān fok-tā .	Nü-pē lāng man saü tāng tep man
Hãng luk mun (sic) kau pố họi nai.	Kau hāng luk-chai man po kā nām nām.	Hāng luk-chai man ki lai hoi-ko kau pō.
Man ti nü-nai ling ū	Man paü ngō ti chik nai .	Man pai ling pē-yā bū tī-nü noi ân.
Tī-kā-taŭ tun-mai man khī mā-nō chung-nai.	Man mạ ăn ũ kan taü tôn mai nai kan-nü mạ mai nāng se ū.	Man ki mạ ũ taŭ tun-mai nāng-shi ū,
Nâng-chai mun (sic) nữ pi- sau nai song.	Pī-chai man song se nâng shau man.	Hāng nâng-chai man hāng nâng-sau man sung (song) mē.
Khān man sâng trā thulī .	Kā man sâng trā pai sik lüng.	Kạ man sâng tra thu-li,

English.	Ahom (Sibsagar).	Khāmtī (Lakhimpur).
233. My father lives in that orange of the second	2 1 3 4 5 7 Po kau jū khau ā-nān rün 6 noi.	Hün ân ā-nan mai House small that in pō kau ū. father my resides.
234. Give this rupee to him.	1 5 2 8 Haü mān ī-ū trā • • •	Trā an-nai man mai haü-t Rupee this him to give.
235. Take those rupees from him.	1 2 3 4 5 Aü khau-trậ luk-tām mān .	Trā-khau ä-nan lūk man-ma Rupces those from him au-tā. take.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	2 1-3 4 5 Mān po-shī chām khât-bai- 7 8 shī tāng shai.	Man-mai nl-nl-shī pō-shī au Him well beating with shai phūk-tū. ropes bind.
237. Draw water from the well.	1 2 1 3 4 Tit (tet) nām shī luk nām- 6 khrūm. (Nām-khrūm = well, tank).	T
238. Walk before me	1 2 3	Khāng-nā kau-maī phai-tā Before me walk.
239. Whose boy comes be-	2 1 3 4 Lik-khā phraü mā lāng maü	Kālang maŭ tō-ân phai Behind you boy whose mā-kā.
40. From whom did you buy that?	1 2 4 5 Luk-phraü maü khān-shü ā- 6 5 nān aü.	
41. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Luk kāt-kim(kem) lüng 5 4 bān chām.	Lük män chau-kat-mai. From village shopkesper.
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Tairong (Sibsagar).	Norā (Sibsagar).	Aitoniā (Sibsagar).
Tī-hün ân nan pō kau yāng	Pō kau ũ hün ân ạ-nan .	Põ kau ŭ tī hün iñ (en).
Hāng man ngün nan hāü- lā.	Ngün trā nai haü hāng man.	Ngün trā a-nān haü hāng man.
Ngün khau au kā-tī man .	Luk-tī man ngün fung nai au-tā.	Ū-luk-tī nān ngün a-nān au.
Hāng man teñ nī-nī-sī au sai fuk-lā.	Po-tā hāng man nī nī khün- nāng-kau au chük fuk-tā.	Hāng man pō nī-nī au chük fuk (fok).
Luk nām-mö nān nām tāk-lā.	Luk-tī nam-mō nam tāk-tā	Nām mo nai tāk-ma.
Ân-nā kau lē-lā	Khāng-nā kau fai-tāng kā	Ân-tāng ân-tâng kau pai.
Kāng-lāng maü luk faü mā	Luk faŭ nai mā kan lāng maŭ.	Kan lāng maü luk faü mā ?
Maü sũ mā-tī faü-nē .	Ā-nan maŭ shū kā luk-tī faü.	Maü sū-ma tī-faü ?
Sân-pō kā-tī mấn-lüng .	Man mai luk-tī pa-tāng che mai.	Sīd-mạ ti-kat mãn ạ-nān.
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